YOUTH RESTIVENESS AND EDUCATION:
A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE NIGER DELTA REGION OF NIGERIA.

BY

UTUAMA, TUWERE
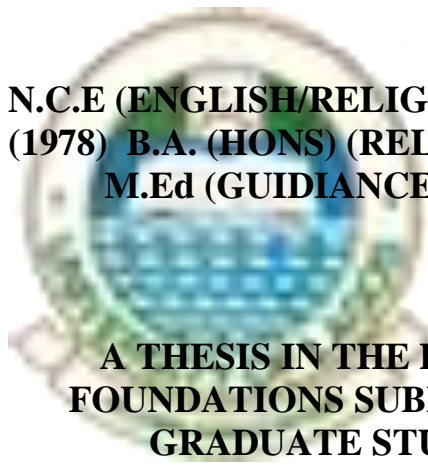
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N.C.E (ENGLISH/RELIGIOUS STUDIES) ABRAKA DELTA STATE (1978) B.A. (HONS) (RELIGIOUS STUDIES) IBADAN (1985) M.Ed (GUIDIANCE & COUNSELLING) UNILAG (1986)

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APPROVAL

THIS RESEARCH REPORT HAS BEEN APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND THE SCHOOL OF POST GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS.

BY

_____   _____
REV. FR. F.M. ISICHEI. O.P, Ph.D   **Date**
1ˢᵗ Supervisor

_____   _____
Dr. (MRS) I. I. ABE   **Date**
2ⁿᵈ Supervisor

_____   _____
PROFESSOR (MRS) A. M. OLUSAKIN   **Date**
Head Department of Educational Foundations

SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the thesis:

YOUTH RESTIVENESS AND EDUCATION: A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE NIGER DELTA REGION OF NIGERIA

Submitted to the School of Post Graduate Studies,
University of Lagos

For the Award of the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (Ph.D)
Is a Record of Original Research Carried Out

By

UTUAMA TUWERE

In the Department of Educational Foundations

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SPG. REPRESENTATIVE	**SIGNATURE**	**DATE**

DEDICATION

The thesis is dedicated to the Blessed Trinity in recognition of the love of God the Father, who saved me from a near fatal accident and commissioned this study the same night, the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ and the fellowship of the Holy Spirit which I enjoyed throughout this research;

My parents, late Mrs Epini Ojigho who experienced the pain of waiting for a child for over 30years of her reproductive life before l was born, for her deep love for me and late Mr Dickson Akiti Ojigho, an educationist par excellence for his discipline and wisdom in educating me, a girl-child;

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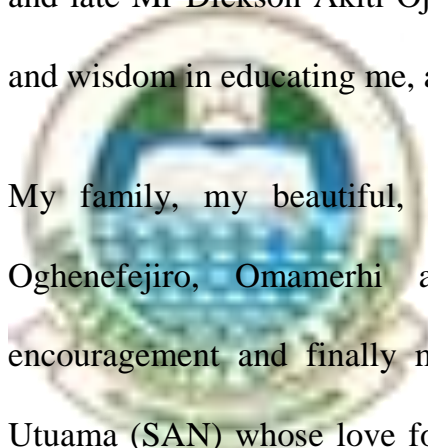
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With God all things are possible! This became manifest in the long and tedious journey of this programme. I am highly indebted to God for His love, provision and inspiration. He deserves the best of my thanks, praise and worship for the innumerable blessings and favours bestowed upon me during the course of this programme. Without Him this work could not have been completed. I thank Him for giving me the strength, courage and all it takes to successfully reach this final stage. To Him be the glory and adoration forever and ever.

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Tuwere Utuama

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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the factors that predispose youth of the Niger Delta to restiveness and find out how education in the form of skills acquisition and a general social education can help solve or reduce this social menace. Faulty socialization was identified as the basic reason for this malady. Other reasons include unemployment, poverty, marginalization, the problems in the Nigerian educational system, negative national values, lack of parental guidance, long viewing hours of violent films and the easy availability of guns and small arms in the hands of the youth. The study drew upon two research designs, namely the descriptive-survey and the quasi-experimental pre-test, post-test designs involving 1339 respondents made up of 682 males and 657 females whose ages ranged between 18 – 30 years. They were drawn from the four States of Akwa-Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers. The 1st treatment group was exposed to skills acquisition only. The 2nd treatment group was exposed to a general social education and skills acquisition. The control group received neither skills acquisition nor general social education. Five hypotheses were tested and five instruments were used to generate relevant data for the study. The data generated were analyzed using ANOVA, multiple regression, Pearson product correlation statistics and independent t-test comparison as well as descriptive statistics of simple percentages, mean and standard deviation. All the five hypotheses tested at 0.05 level of significance were rejected. The findings of the study indicated that skills acquisition alone was not sufficient to reduce violent behaviour among the youth. A combination of skills acquisition and a general social education was found to be most efficacious in reducing attraction of the youth to violence. The findings also revealed that the youth in the middle socio-economic class were most favourably disposed to violence followed by those in low socio-economic background. The findings also indicated that youth who have strong religious affiliations were less prone to violence. A general social education should, therefore, be included in skills acquisition training for youth.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background to the Study

The popular adage that children and young persons are the leaders of tomorrow is a strong indication that the greatest asset any nation can have is its youth. Sociologically, youth are those between the end of puberty and the onset of adulthood, although countries use different parameters to describe them. They are potentially the greatest investment of a country's development. They serve as a good measure of the extent to which a country can reproduce as well as sustain itself. The National Youth Policy (2008) describes the extent of their vitality, responsible conduct and roles in society as positively correlated with the development of their country. Atoyebi (1999) opines that for our youth to be in positions to provide this kind of positive continuity for development there must be responsible upbringing for wholesome growth provided for them. He, therefore, counsels that parents should be concerned with both the physical and the spiritual growth of young people to enable them to have a holistic growth for their own benefits and that of the society at large. He observes that:

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> *'the growth of young people to adulthood depends among other things, on various cultural and psychological factors which can be moulded through good educational and religious principles. We should not be concerned with only their physical growth but also their spiritual growth, which will enable them to have a holistic growth for their own benefits and that of the society at large'* (Atoyebi, 1999, p. 6).

From the foregoing, for youth to positively contribute to the development of their nation, they must be given good education with their physical and spiritual growth well nourished to prevent stunted growth. Unfortunately, young ones are brought up today with only their physical growth being catered for in most cases and their spiritual growth neglected by parents who are in pursuit of material well being. Although there are many churches and mosques observed across the country, people appear to pay lip service to religious and moral matters. Many of these churches preach prosperity and miracles at the expense of morality (Diafiewhare, 2008). Consequently, young people are confused about real values. This confusion about real values and the inherent problems of the Nigerian educational policy, according to Balogun (1999) account for the unacceptable nature of the youth's social life today. He writes:

> *'Although Nigeria's educational policy accords youth's education a priority, this is only on paper as majority of the youth who are either uneducated or at best half-educated and without moral principles account for the unacceptable nature of their social life today'* (Balogun, 1999, 17).

He identifies this unacceptable nature of their social life to include, drug addiction, sexual abuse, prostitution, armed robbery, examination mal-practices, political thuggery, rioting, kidnapping, vandalism, swindling, cultism, bombing of oil installations to mention but a few. Nwanna-Nzewunwa, Girigiri and Okon (2007),

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writing on the Niger Delta crisis, recognize these unacceptable and irresponsible actions of the youth as obvious manifestations of youth restiveness. To them, youth unrest is a social challenge which has a strong negative bearing on the security and well being of individuals and families in that society. This is because the restive youth are uncontrollable and find it difficult to respect constituted authority and as such are a source of danger to those around them. Youth who devote their energy and vitality to these irresponsible conduct and roles are likely to negatively affect the development of their country. This calls for concern. Furthermore, Shofola (1994) observes that the identified manifestations of youth restiveness are against the social norms and expectations of the Nigerian society, and as such they are anti-social activities and deviant behaviours. Also, these negative actions of the youth such as kidnapping, armed robbery, bombing of oil installations are shrouded in violence and are criminal in nature. Therefore, youth restiveness, violence, anti-social activities, delinquency, deviance and crime are used in this study interchangeably.

It is evident from the foregoing that faulty socialization of young people as identified in parents, the Nigerian educational system and the larger society is the major contributor to youth restiveness in Nigeria and the Niger Delta in particular. All the agents of socialization, the family, the school including peer influences, the media and the state have failed most of our youth. According to Schaefer (2002), socialization is primarily the source of conforming and obedient behaviour, including obedience to law. To Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), proper socialization develops our self-control so well that we do not need further pressure to obey social

norms. Hence, children who are improperly socialized are likely to grow up to be non conforming youngsters or deviants. In support of this assertion, Togbolo (2005) notes that most parents, who are the primary agents of socialization, are not living up to expectation in teaching their children and inculcating in them the norms and values of a civilized society. He attributes this failure to economic pursuit where both parents have to work and so have no time for the children. These days, in most cases, parental responsibility has been taken over by house helps, day care centers and nursery schools while both parents go to work. Furthermore, single parenting is on the increase. Incidents of one parent or both parents travelling abroad for greener pastures, literally abandoning the child to some stranger or relation abound. So, it is difficult for a child without a 'home' to have home training. The youth nurtured in a situation such as this, where parenting is neglected and left in the hands of those who themselves need care and guidance cannot but grow up to be restive. Osarenren (2005) affirms that children raised in such homes without parental love at their formative years are likely to grow up maladjusted and deviant. In agreement with this affirmation, Aneke (2009) points out that the recent wave of indiscipline in Nigeria by way of corruption, stealing, armed robbery and all sorts of anti-social behaviours can be traced back to earlier home training and development. She adds that many Nigerian parents have problems establishing and maintaining limits, privileges and responsibilities for their children. They are not firm, fair, explicit, honest and consistent with their children and so mislead them.

The larger society which is another agent of socialization is also negatively affected and consumed by materialism. According to Ifaturoti (1994), the youth who do not

exist in a vacuum, observe this unhealthy social environment and they react to the society. They emulate the behaviour of the outer society where persons who have achieved success through corruption, armed robbery, stealing and violence are lauded. The signal sent to the youth is that anti-social activities are acceptable means of achieving success, wealth and recognition in society. They are more likely to imitate these acts of anti-social behaviours because they are not punished but rewarded. Thus, the Nigerian society in this way can be seen as the source and motivator of anti-social behaviours in most of the youth.

The Nigerian educational system too, another agent of socialization is far from being healthy. It simply bristles with problems. All the problems militating against education cannot be exhaustively discussed here but only those that have direct bearing to this study are addressed. These problems as identified by Isichei (2001) include the removal of moral instructions and all forms of corporal punishment from all public schools; the improper implementations of the 6-3-3-4 system of education; the lack of technical education and facilities for practice and deficient school curricula coupled with lack of good remunerations and motivation for teachers. This is well corroborated by Nwabueze (1995). As Secretary for Education and Youth Development in the Shonekan led Transitional Council of 1992, he saw and experienced first hand the enormous problems facing the Nigerian education system. He writes:

> *'There is scarcely any aspect of the system that is free of them - problems concerning the ownership of primary and secondary schools, the falling standards of education to unconducive learning environment, inadequacy of instructional and learning facilities particularly books, ineffective teaching, ineffective management, inadequate funding, the*

scantiness of moral content of education imparted in schools, examination malpractices to mention just a few. At the tertiary level, our universities and polytechnics have become the most fertile ground for social unrest and indiscipline' (Nwabueze, *1995, p.11*).

The Nigerian educational system openly exposes the inadequacy of the 'school' as an agent of socialization. According to Aremu (2009), with the abolition of moral education, the use of the cane and other forms of corporal punishment in schools, discipline declined. The school is also taken unawares in dealing with drugs abuse among students, leading to increased incidences of violence, including riotous behaviour as evident in cultism, vandalism and destruction of property (Ifaturoti, 1994). Falaye (2008) opines that the school seems incapable of dealing with the effects of the Human Immune Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) pandemic on teachers and students. The Nigerian youth who are most vulnerable are ignorant of all the facts about HIV/AIDS. Furthermore, until recently, the school (education) was seen as an important means of social mobility. Obanya (2007) and Oghuvbu (2007) observe that these days, things have changed as a result of the high and growing rate of youth unemployment after graduation. Okeke cited by Hodges (2001) notes that this lack of incentive for young people to study is evident in the considerable proportion of young people who drop out of school, due to lack of interest for school or interest to engage in income generating activities, as seen among the Igbos of Eastern Nigeria. Yet, others are involved in anti- social activities like armed robbery, being used as hired assassins and arsonists, cultism, examination malpractices, drug abuse, kidnappings of oil workers, children, women and parents of politicians and wealthy members of the

society for ransom to mention only a few (Olayinka and Omoegun, 2002; Adeniji, 2004).These show that there are a variety of influences and a network of precipitating and predisposing factors responsible for youth unrest and anti-social activities.

The causes of youth unrest in the Niger Delta, apart from faulty socialization are many. They include abject poverty (Azaiki, 2003). The people of the region complain of marginalization and injustice meted to them in the distribution of the nation's financial resources. Despite the whooping 95 percent contribution to the national oil base economy (UNESCO, 2003), they get so little in return. Other reasons according to Azaiki (2003), Epko (2004) and Olusakin (2006) are the over bearing attitudes of the oil companies. Huge income gaps exist between the rich and the poor. There are poor and grossly inadequate housing and transportation facilities. The people lack social infrastructure particularly for education, health and outdoor recreation for the youth; public utilities, especially water and electricity supplies. The people also feel that there exist social and ethnic discrimination and inequalities in the nation against them.

According to Ovwigho and Ifie (2009), population explosion is a significant factor in the discussion of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. They argue that polygamy is still very much practiced in the region and a man can father up to fifty children. In most cases all these children cannot be provided with formal education and adequately cared for physically, socially and morally, so they grow up to become problems to the society. These authors are also of the opinion that youth problems such as staying away from home, rebelliousness, gangsters, armed robbery, cultism

and prostitution are common in societies where population control and monogamy are not practiced. The United Nation Population Fund (2002) and Action Health Incorporated (2002) discover that young people constitute about one third (30%) of the total population of most African countries. There is the likelihood that this population will grow over the next 20 years to create for the youth a grappling problem of unemployment. This fear is confirmed from the Table below, showing that the population of youth in Nigeria and the Niger Delta is over 40% already with Edo State recording as high as 66%.

Table 1: Distribution of Youth Population in the Niger Delta - Age 15 – 29

S/N	State	Population of Youth	Total Population	Percentage (%)
1.	Abia	878,232	2,183,104	40.2
2.	Akwa Ibom	880,735	2,131,059	41.3
3.	Bayelsa	1,184,605	2,915,23	40.6
4.	Cross River	886,936	2,134,197	41.6
5.	Delta	1,247,306	3,063,630	40.7
6.	Edo	1,020,364	1,542,812	66.1
7.	Imo	1,197,065	2,985,106	40.1
8.	Ondo	1,031,686	2,564,737	40.2
9.	Rivers	1,640,795	3,936,270	41.7
10.	Nigeria	40,545,924	97,831,443	41.4

Source: *National Population Commission. 2006 Population and Housing Census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.*

 Other factors highlighted by Comstock (1991), Akparanta (1994) and Albert (1994) are; the exposure of youth to domestic and military violence, inadequate parental guidance generally, easy availability of guns in the hands of the youth as shown in

Appendix H (pp. 252-254), influx of uncensored films and home videos, easy and uncontrolled youth access to the internet and the apparent problems bedeviling the Nigerian educational system (Nwabueze, 1995; Isichei, 2001). Azaiki (2003), Osuoka (2003) and Utuama (2009) all draw attention to the laws like the Petroleum Control Decree of 1967 and Land Use Act of 1978 in the Constitution which deny the people of the region their right to land and the mineral oil and gas found on their land. In addition, Obateru (1994), Azaiki (2003), Ekpo (2004) and Alamieyesigha (2005) point to the economic frustration, resulting especially from widespread unemployment among young people, particularly school leavers and graduates of tertiary institutions. They assert that environmental exploitation, pollution and degradation have rendered the land barren and aquatic lives non-existent. So, the people are displaced from their traditional occupation of fishing and farming, thus compounding the problem of unemployment among the youth of the area and so they are restless.

To stem the tide of restiveness among the youth, this study investigates the role of education, specifically social education and skill acquisition in the solution or reduction of the problem. In providing the youth with this kind of education, the great values of skill acquisition are emphasized. Looking at the traditional processes of goldsmith, weaving and pottery crafts, the virtues of patience, hard work, concentration and discipline are largely exhibited. Laye (1954) vividly describes the observance of absolute silence and intense concentration shown by his father the goldsmith, his apprentices, other observers and even the praise singer (employed by the trinket owner to motivate his father) as soon as the smelting process of the gold

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grains started. Fatusin (1992) draws attention to the songs of Yoruba potters. In their songs, they express the value of strong pride in their profession, their economic independence and they extol the dignity of hard work. Equally, Wahab (1995) and Shittu-Gbeko (1995) reveal that weaving by adolescents in Iseyin has increased their level of literacy, discouraged juvenile acts by keeping the youth busy and preventing them from roaming the streets. They have money to pay school fees and as such, school enrolment, students' attendance and performance improved. It is hoped, therefore, that the values of skill acquisition which include patience, intense focus and concentration, perseverance, calm disposition and discipline to be consciously or unconsciously imbibed from the training by the participants would go a long way in redirecting their energies from negative activities.

The general notion is that most of the youth involved in violence in the region are school dropouts (Ogionwo, 1978); from low socio-economic backgrounds; with very low self-esteem and perceptions of themselves (Azaiki, 2003; Ekpo, 2004); low self-efficacy and therefore, low success expectancy; lack sound religious and moral up-bringing (Balogun, 1999); ignorant; raised in poverty and without employment (Peretomode, 2002; Alamieyesigha, 2005). These variables are investigated in this study and how education can be used to reverse these trends by providing the youth an educative process through the acquisition of skills marketable in modern economy. In addition, the study focuses on providing a general social education or advocacy to equip them with knowledge about their environment in order to change their negative mindsets.
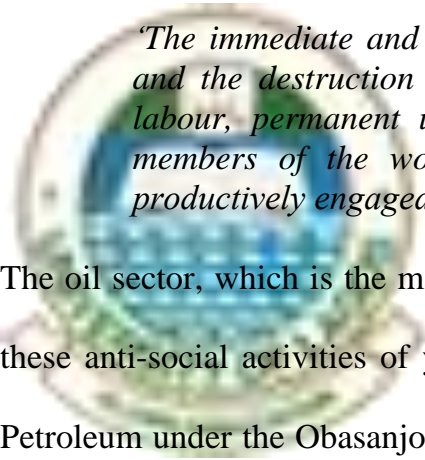
1.2   Statement of the Problem

Youth restiveness with its attendant violence in the Niger Delta is a serious problem to the Federal, State and Local governments, the oil producing companies, the business community, strangers, indigenes of the region and indeed the entire world. This is because crude oil, the main stay of the Nigerian economy is found in the region and whenever there is a crisis in the area, the price of crude oil in the world market is affected. Youth restiveness which started as a cry for social justice from perceived marginalization and economic deprivation as a result of the exploitation oil resources (Ikime, 1980; Tamnuno, 1991) found in the region has metamorphosed into all kinds of anti-social behaviours (Azaiki, 2003). The Niger Delta is now an area of deepening frustration and unprecedented crisis resulting in all forms of violence, rape, drug abuse, bombing, piracy, extortion, vandalism, kidnapping to mention only a few (Nwanna-Nzewunwa et al, 2007). The consequences of youth restiveness are adverse and grave at the individual, regional, national and international levels.

 The first obvious consequence of youth restiveness and violence is the destruction of both human capital and material resources. In most cases, breadwinners of families are untimely killed, leaving the families in misery and depleting the population of the region. In other cases, villages like Odi, Odimuodi and Kaiama in Bayelsa State; Ogulaha and Opuama in Delta State have been burnt down and completely destroyed, bringing untold hardships, suffering and deep sense of loss to the affected people. In these villages, women and young girls were raped and exposed to physical pain, shame and psychological trauma. Youth restiveness

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coupled with the activities of the oil companies create conditions for the destruction of the natural environment and the means of livelihood of the local people who depend on the land for survival. Agricultural farmlands and fishing coastal areas are destroyed thereby compounding the problems of unemployment, hunger and poverty (Osuoka, 2003).

Another disturbing aspect of youth restiveness and violence is the deliberate vandalism and damage to public utilities. These utilities are not likely to be immediately replaced, thereby compounding the problem of amenities. This problem is well articulated by Fadahunsi (2003) when he writes:

> *'The immediate and long run impact of mindless vandalization and the destruction of public utilities will be retrenchment of labour, permanent unemployment, poverty and misery of the members of the workforce that would have been otherwise productively engaged' (*Fadahunsi, 2003, p.155).

The oil sector, which is the main stay of the economy, also suffers setbacks due to these anti-social activities of youth restiveness. Daukoru, the minister of state for Petroleum under the Obasanjo Regime estimated that Nigeria lost some $30 billion to youth and communal unrest between 1999 and 2003 in the region. This represents a huge loss of revenue to the three tiers of government. This in turn slows down the pace of development as in most cases, flow stations are shut down, refineries are closed, local and foreign oil workers are abducted and even killed. Also, the whole nation faces long queues in fuel filling stations and loss of valuable working hours (Agbaje, 2003).

The activities of the restive youth of the Niger Delta constantly generate a state of anxiety for government and the governed. There is a large amount of arms both

local and sophisticated weapons, bombs and ammunitions in the hands of the youth as shown in Appendix H (pp. 252-254). These guns and ammunitions are used to perpetuate a lot of atrocities thereby creating the feeling of insecurity in the region. This leads to low investments from both local and foreign investors, lack of economic progress and social peace.

Nwanna-Nzewunwa (2008), in her study of the effect of youth restiveness on teaching and learning in the region, reveals that the Niger Delta crisis commonly known as youth restiveness has a lot of negative impact on education in Bayelsa and Rivers States. And no nation can build a strong economic foundation without a sound educational system.

It is evident from the above scenario that youth restiveness is an ill wind that blows no one good. This informs the present study which investigates the role a general social education and skill acquisition can play in the reduction of youth restiveness in the region.

1.3   Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this research hinges on:

1)   Containment Theory (Reckless, 1961; 1968).

11)   The Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977; 1986).

Containment Theory (Reckless, 1961; 1968)

The theory is built on the concept of internal and external control which Reckless calls 'inner' and 'outer' containment. In other words, society produces a series of 'pushes' and 'pulls' towards deviance. The basic proposition in containment theory is that these inner and outer pushes and pulls will produce deviant behaviour except

they are counteracted by inner and outer containment. When the motivations to deviance are strong and containment is weak, deviance is expected to occur and vice-versa.

The identified pushes and pulls can be classified as internal pushes, external pressures and external pulls. Akers (2000) enumerates the factors that motivate youngsters to deviance to include discontent, hostility or aggression. The internal pushes according to Siegel and Sienna (1994) involve such personal factors as restlessness, discontent, hostility, rebellion, mental conflict, anxieties and the need for immediate gratification. External pressures are adverse living conditions that influence deviant behaviour. They include relative deprivation, poverty, unemployment, insecurity, minority status, limited opportunities and inequalities. The external pulls are deviant companions, membership in criminal subcultures or other deviant groups and such influences as mass media and pornography. Outer containment includes parental and school supervision and discipline, strong group cohesion and a consistent moral front. Inner containment consists basically of a strong conscience or a 'good self concept'. Both or one of the types of containment if possessed by a youth can prevent him or her from deviance. Reckless (1967) believes that the self-concept of the youth is a 'good' kid with a strong conscience or a 'bad' kid with a weak self-control. He concludes that a youth possessing a strong conscience or a weak self-control is a product of socialization in the family. In other words, it is the socialization process of an individual that is responsible for his character later in life. That is to say that proper socialization breeds conformity to rules and norms of a society, while improper socialization breeds deviance.
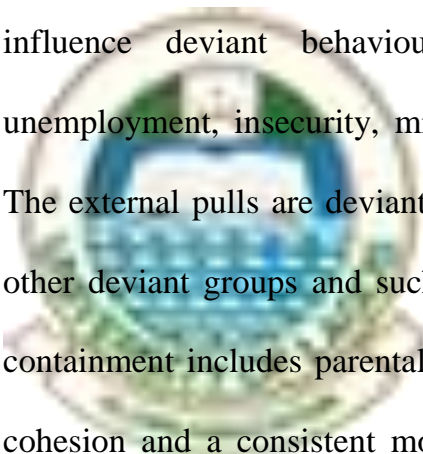
The researcher finds this theory very robust in the sense that it explains and puts in better perspective the major themes of this thesis. It highlights the socio-psychological factors that serve as pushes towards violence among the youth in the Niger-Delta. The internal pushes as enumerated by Siegel and Sienna (1994) describe the factors responsible for youth unrest and violence in the Niger Delta. The youth are restless because of discontentment and injustice in the fiscal sharing of the nation's wealth to their disadvantage (Azaiki, 2003). They are hostile and rebellious, kidnapping and blowing up oil installations. They are anxious that they may never get a fair deal, so they are in search of immediate gratification. Thus, they are involved in piracy and oil bunkering on the high seas. The financial benefits so derived are used to purchase guns for further violent activities (Omotola, 2009). The external pressures which are adverse living conditions that influence deviant behaviour are also very much evident among the youth in the Niger Delta. They are deprived of basic amenities. They live in abject poverty. There is mass unemployment among the youth. They feel insecure about their future and their minority status has exposed them to limited opportunities and inequalities (Ekpo, 2004). The external pulls are deviant companions, membership in criminal subcultures or other deviant groups and such influences as mass media and pornography. This is also true of the Niger Delta youth. Outer containment includes parental and school supervision and discipline, strong group cohesion and a consistent moral front. Inner containment consists basically of a strong conscience or a 'good self-concept'. These youth are in short supply and dire need of both inner and outer containment hence they fall prey to deviance.

The key aspect of this theory is the link between deviant behaviour and self-concept. In a series of studies by Reckless and his associates analyzing containment principles, they conclude that the ability of non-deviants to maintain their conventional 'good' behaviour depends on their holding a positive self-concept or image in the face of environmental pressures towards deviance. This explains the reason why some youth are prone to violent activities while others are not despite the fact that they are products of the same social environment. It also reveals the need to help children and young persons to develop positive self-image at home, at the school and in the society through proper socialization with sound moral principles.

Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986)

The social learning theory holds that a person's learning and social experiences coupled with his values and expectations determine behaviour. The social learning theory emphasizes the importance of observation and modelling on the behaviours, attitudes and emotions of others. Bandura (1977) states that:

> *'Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behaviour is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action' (* Bandura, 1977, *p.22).*

The social learning theory proposed by Bandura has become the most influential theory of learning and development. While rooted in many of the basic concepts of traditional learning theory, it has added social element, arguing that people can learn new information and behaviours by watching other people. The basic social

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learning concepts are that people can learn through observation and that intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcements or motivations are important in the learning process.

In his famous 'Bobo doll' studies, Bandura demonstrates that children learn to imitate behaviours they have observed in other people. The children in these studies observed an adult acting violently towards a Bobo doll. When the children were later allowed to play in a room with the Bobo doll, they began to imitate the aggressive actions they had previously observed. Bandura identifies three basic models of observational learning. These are:

  i)   a live model, which involves an actual individual demonstrating or acting out a behaviour;

  ii)   a verbal institutional model, which involves descriptions and explanations of a behaviour and

  iii) symbolic model, which involves real or fictional characters displaying behaviours in books, films, television programs or online media.

In agreement with Bandura, social learning theorists and researchers in general believe that people will model their behaviour according to the reactions they receive from others and those they are in close contact with including parents, the behaviour they view on television and in movies as well as verbal description or explanations of a behavior (Cardwell & Flanagan; Taylor, Peplau & Sears, 2006 and Haralambos & Holborn, 2008). Like the children in Bandura's studies with the Bobo doll, people who observe aggression from a person slapping or punching another during an argument and seeing that such aggressive behaviour is approved or rewarded are likely to react violently during a similar argument. Eventually such

people will master the techniques of aggression and become more confident that such behaviours will bring tangible rewards.

Bandura's theory reveals that watching violence on television can make children aggressive and develop anti-social behaviours. This picture fits the scenario of the violence among the youths of the Niger Delta. They watch television of how important and vital installations are bombed in reaction to demands in dispute situations all around the world. They also watch kidnapping for ransom on televisions. So they act out such situations in relation to their local environment. Others may have witnessed violence in the home as a result of child or wife/husband battering and since the perpetrators of such violent acts were not punished, they will grow up to act out such behaviours. The whole region is heavily militarized by the Federal Government and so these youth have internalized violence which they also want to act out.

Okoli (2002) observes that all behaviours whether deviant, adaptive or maladaptive, appropriate or inappropriate are learned and maintained according to the same principles. If undesirable behaviours are learned, it follows that they can be unlearned in the same way. It is therefore, hoped that with proper education, where the youth can be taught skills they are interested in and with verbal persuasion or social advocacy, they will drop their negative actions and be useful to themselves and the society at large. The principles of observation, imitation or modelling advanced by Bandura in this theory were used to teach the participants.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of this study is to examine the factors that predispose youth in the Niger Delta to violence. It also seeks to investigate how a general social education and skill acquisition can be used for the purpose of achieving self-actualization for the youth and their contributing effectively to nation building. Specifically, the objectives of this study are:

1.   To determine if skill acquisition alone is sufficient to bring about the most desired behavioural changes in the youth.

2.   To find out the effect of gender, self-efficacy, general success expectancy and the level of education of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

3.   To investigate the influence of the socio-economic background of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

4.   To evaluate the relationship between the general success expectancy of the youth, their self- efficacy and their level of education.

5.   To examine the relationship between religious affiliations or views and violence among the youth.

1.5   Research Questions

Answers were provided for the following questions in the course of this study:

1.   Is there any significant difference in the attitudes towards violence of the youth across the three experimental conditions?

2.   Is there any significant influence of gender, self-efficacy, general success expectancy and the level of education of the youth on their attitudes towards violence?

3.   Is there any significant effect of the socio-economic background of the youth on their attitudes towards violence?

4.   Is there any significant relationship between the general success expectancy of the youth, their self-efficacy and their level of education?

5.   Is there any significant difference in attitudes towards violence between youth who hold strong religious views and those who do not?

1.6   Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:-

1.   There is no significant difference in the attitudes towards violence of the youth across the three experimental conditions.

2.   There is no significant influence of gender, self-efficacy, general success expectancy and the level of education of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

3.   There is no significant effect of the socio-economic status of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

4.   There is no significant relationship between the general success expectancy of the youth, their self-efficacy and their level of education.

5.   There is no significant difference in attitudes towards violence between youths who hold strong religious views and those who do not.

1.7   Scope of the Study

This study is limited to the youth of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers States in the Niger Delta who are between the age range of 18-30 years and who are out of school voluntarily and those who completed their education but unemployed. It

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focuses on the social problems of youth unrest in the Niger Delta and how education can be used to reverse this trend. The four States of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers are used to define the Niger Delta in this study because they are the highest oil producing States of the Federation and their youth are the most restive in the region (Nwanna-Nzewunwa, 2007).

1.8   Significance of the Study

The study is not only relevant but current as the problem of the incessant youth unrest and general insecurity in the region resulting in the loss of lives and revenue has continued to be a source of worry to the three tiers of government, oil companies, parents, administrators and policy makers. The Federal Government burdened over the years by the Niger Delta crisis, the prolonged youth restiveness and general insecurity in the region has taken steps to end the crisis. These interventions include the establishment of the Niger Delta Development Board (NNDB) in 1960, the Mineral Producing Area Development Commission (OMPADEC) in 1992, the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) in 2000, the Niger Delta Federal Ministry and the Amnesty programme in 2009. Most of the Niger Delta States have also established their own Mineral Producing Area Development Commissions. Although the Niger Delta Federal Ministry, the Amnesty and Post Amnesty programmes are new and are at their teething challenges, their positive effects have not been felt and the other measures have failed to resolve the Niger Delta crisis, the youth unrest and the general insecurity in the area. The findings of this study will immensely help in the solution or reduction

of youth restiveness through the educative process of skills acquisition and a general social advocacy.

The oil companies in many respects contribute towards the discontent in the Niger Delta and to conflicts within and between communities (Olusakin, 2006). The major problem between the oil companies and their host communities is in the performance of their corporate responsibilities to their host communities. The findings of the study will boost the oil producing companies' performance of their social responsibilities to the youth of their host communities, especially in the area of skills acquisition which has hitherto been without a general social education. The general social education will help to stem the tide of youth squandering the money given to them as starter packs after skills training and selling the equipment in exchange for quick money, after which they return to their restive activities.

Scholars and social commentators (Ifaturoti, 1994; Balogun, 1999; Isichei, 2001; Osarenren, 2005; Edem, 2005; Togbolo, 2005 and Aneke, 2009) assert that faulty socialization of young people as exhibited in parents, the educational system and the larger society is the major cause of youth restiveness in Nigeria and the Niger Delta in particular. The study confirms these assertions and reveals the need for parental education towards enhancing effective parenthood in the form of non-formal education.

The study exposes the bane of technical and vocational education in Nigeria and the need to upgrade it at par with academic learning. It generates data for administrators and policy makers in education and brings to fore the need to develop a curriculum

that will emphasize sound moral training and principles for schools in the Niger Delta.

The study expands the scope of existing literature and reduces the dearth of literature on youth violence in the Niger Delta. It makes for a better understanding of the intricacies of the issue of youth problems in the region and proffers solution in its reduction.

1.9 Operational Definitions of Terms

Youth: Nations use different parameters to define youth. Although in Nigeria, those between 18 and 35 years are regarded as youth, for the purpose of this study, any person in the age range of 18 to 30 years will be regarded as youth. The reasons are:
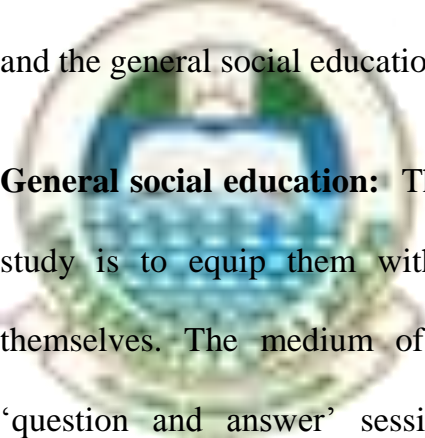
1. In Nigeria, anybody up to the age of 18 years is allowed to vote. This means he/she is not a child.

2. Anybody who is above the age of 30 years is exempted from the compulsory National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) scheme. He is simply not regarded as a youth. By simple deduction therefore, the youth in this study are between 18-30 years of age.

Violence: There are many forms of violence. These include individual or interpersonal violence, representing violent acts such as murder, robbery, street fighting and so on between individuals, and group or mass violence which refers to the type of violence resulting from mass action, riots, demonstrations and public protests among others. There are those violent acts aimed at preserving existing order in a society as those carried out by government agencies like the police, army

and so on. All the forms of violence mentioned above take place in the Niger Delta and are adopted in the study.

Socio-economic Background: It is determined in the study by rating items relating to the parents' educational level and occupation, home ownership and luxuries in the home. This enabled the researcher to group the participants into high, middle and low socio-economic backgrounds.

Education: In the course of this study, education is used in its general term to discuss the problems facing the educational sector in Nigeria but education as a remedy to the problem of youth unrest in the Niger Delta means skills acquisition and the general social education designed by the researcher.

General social education: The general social education given to the youth in this study is to equip them with the basic knowledge of their environment and themselves. The medium of teaching was through lectures with visual aids, 'question and answer' sessions with active participation of the youth. The participants were taken through the following topics:

1)   Youth's World View on Peace and War.
2)   Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) Lectures.
3)   Drug Abuse and Trafficking.
4)   Population and Sex Education.
5)   Role Modelling (of young achievers from the region and the world) and Goal Setting.
6)   Conflicts / Conflicts Resolution.

Self-efficacy: Operationally, self-efficacy in this study would mean how an individual conceptualizes himself, his abilities and potentials in relations to tasks before him and his actions and choice of behaviour.

Restiveness: Restiveness is used in this study to describe the response to society of the youth through negative social activities like murder, arson, maiming and killings, rape, kidnapping, vandalization of public utilities and destruction of properties at the least opportunity.

Deviance: Deviance is a behaviour that violates the standards of conduct or expectations of a group or society, although what constitutes right or wrong varies from one society to another. Deviant behaviours vary from disobedience of instruction to incest, muder, and other serious offences. It includes social problems such as crime, delinquency, corruption, drug abuse, sexual deviation in form of prostitution and similar actions, which are departure from or preservation of the normal social behaviour. Therefore, anti-social activities, violence, delinquency, deviance, crime and restiveness are used in this study interchangeably.

General success expectancy: In this study, general expectancy for success means an individual's belief that he would be able to obtain desired goals.

Niger Delta: There are many notions of the Niger Delta. In this study, the four States of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers will constitute the Niger Delta for the following reasons. They are the four highest oil producing States of the Federation. They are littoral or coastal States with their south bordering the Atlantic Ocean. Their access to the ocean provides them contact with the oil carrying vessels

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and off-shore oil installations. Thus, most youth in this region are involved in piracy and illegal oil bunkering on the high seas, in most cases unhindered. The financial benefits so derived are used to purchase guns for their antisocial activities. They also have the most difficult and restive youth in the Niger Delta region.

A MAP SHOWING THE GEOGRAPHICAL AREA OF NIGER DELTA IN RELATION TO THE REST OF NIGERIA

KEY

1. Niger Delta

2. Other States

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, an attempt was made to review the problems of youth restiveness or violence with a view to identifying the root causes of violence or deviant behaviours in general and how education can be used to correct this anomaly in the youth. To give direction to this study, the review of relevant literature was carried out under the following sub-topics:

- Historical perspective of youth unrest in the Niger Delta.

- Deviant theories.

- Treatment strategy.

- Problems of youth worldwide and the problems of African youth in a changing world.

- Youth problems in Nigeria and causes of unrest among the Niger Delta youth.

- Crises in the Nigerian educational system.

- Education and its relevance to the social problem of youth restiveness.

2.1   Historical Perspective of the Youth Unrest in the Niger Delta.

The Niger Delta, according to Stewart (2006) is one of the largest wetlands and mangrove forests in the world, covering an area of some 70,000square kilometers. Azaiki (2003) describes the Niger Delta as lying in the southern most part of Nigeria and stretching from the Nigeria-Cameron boundary in the east to Ondo-Ogun States boundary in the west. The area is bounded in the north by Enugu, Ebonyi, Anambra, Kogi and Ekiti States with the Atlantic coast forming the general boundary in the south. The Niger Delta consists of about 1,600 communities. The region is noted for its sandy coaster ridge barriers, brackish and saline mangroves, permanent and seasonal swamp forests as well as lowlands rain forest. From the 2006 national census sourced from the Federal Office of Statistics (2007), the population of the core Niger Delta States of Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers was put at eleven million people while the extended Niger Delta including Abia, Akwa Ibom, Cross River, Edo, Imo and Ondo states as thirty-one million people which is about one fifth of Nigeria's total population. The Niger Delta is one of the twenty major Deltas of the world. Some of the other Deltas are those of the Nile in Egypt, the Mississippi in the United States, the Mekong in Vietnam, the Ganges in India, the Yellow-Yangtse River in China and the Danube in Germany-Romania. But the Niger Delta is perhaps the richest in the world in terms of oil and gas reserves. It is also the most populated of all the Deltas and it hosts the largest number of rivers and waterways (Ajumogobia, 2009). According to Ajumogobia, despite this wealth, the people of the region live in abject poverty. This seeming paradox of a region

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which is very rich and yet ridden with poverty and under-development is the beginning of the Niger Delta crisis and youth restiveness in the region.

The Niger Delta crisis has long and strong historical roots. It also has passed through different phases. These phases can be identified broadly as two; the pre-crude oil and gas era and the oil and gas era.

1.   The Pre-Crude and Gas Era

This era witnessed the cheating of the local slaves and later palm oil traders by foreign white traders. According to Ikime (2004), the struggle for the Niger Delta people to control their natural resources dates back to the 1800s when the foreign white traders cheated their middlemen and local rulers. The foreign traders who came mainly from Europe insisted on controlling slaves' and later palm oil prices. They forced the traditional rulers to sign trade treaties with them. When some of these rulers discovered they have been cheated and wanted these treaties revoked and others blatantly refused to sign these treaties, they were deposed and sent on exile. These conflicts of interest or disagreement were not without negative consequences on the people of the region. The foreign traders with the practice of 'divide and rule' and as a result of the natural resistance by the local rulers encouraged intertribal wars resulting in death and destruction of property. Villages were plundered and people displaced.

According to Ikime, the Niger Delta has been ruled by violence since the mid seventeenth century when Britain and other European powers were determined from the onset to control the trade in palm oil produced by the local inhabitants to their own advantage. They fixed the price at which they would buy the product and forbade enterprising locals from sending their oil direct to Europe for a better price. They indeed attacked towns and kingdoms that dared assert their rights to free trade. He decries the harsh treatment meted out to William Dappa Pepple, King of the leading palm oil producing city state of Bonny; Jaja , King of Opobo; Nana Olomu, the merchant prince of the Itsekiri kingdom of Warri ; King Overavwen of Benin kingdom, all of whom were either dethroned or exiled in the mid seventeenth century. To Osuoka (2003), this appears to be the beginning of 'an enterprise' in the Niger Delta whose target was the expropriation of the economic resources of the local people and the institutionalization of violence and coercion as instruments of political control.

Osuoka compares the action of the foreign white traders with that of the Federal Government and concludes that they are the same. He examines General Gowon's decree transferring the revenue from oil mined in their land to the Federal Government during the civil war in 1969, General Obasanjo's Land Use Act in 1976 converting all land in the country, including oil minerals obtained from them to the Federal Government to General Babangida's enactment of the Treason and Treasonable Offences decree of 1993 and its application on Ken Saro-Wiwa and the Ogoni eight in 1995 by General Abacha and finds their actions as calculated plans aimed at denying the local people self determination and preventing them from

using their natural resources for their betterment. Other laws as identified by Osuoka are the National Inland Waters Authority Decree 13 of 1977, the Associated Gas Rejection Act of 1979 and the Oil Pipeline Act of 1990, all of which delimit the authority of the Niger Delta people over the resources in their land.

Moreover, Osuoka (2003) and Azaiki (2003) draw attention to the fact that the Federal Government has sent troops to destroy, kill and sack oil bearing communities and villages due to misunderstanding between the communities and either the oil companies or the Federal Government security agencies. For example, the May 2009, military onslaught by the Joint Task Force (JTF) on the militia group of Government Ekpemupolo, popularly known as 'Tompolo' of Oporoza in Gbaramatu kingdom in Delta state and other militia groups in the creeks of the Niger Delta over an alleged abduction and killing of two soldiers paints the graphic picture of the extent of the Federal Government's military invasion of the region. On this occasion, most villages and towns in Delta, Rivers and Bayelsa States were bombed and razed down. Innocent people were displaced from their homelands and many lost their lives and possessions instead of punishing only the perpetrators. According to Osuoka (2003), Azaiki (2003) and Alameyesiegha (2005), this is not the first time the Federal Government is taking such actions against the oil producing communities of the Niger Delta. There are earlier cases of Odi, Odimodi, Kaiama, Mbiama and Imiringi communities of Bayelsa State where these communities were totally destroyed, their women raped by soldiers and the men either killed or driven away from the communities.

It is evident from the above that the Niger Delta has been ruled by violence since the seventeenth century when the local people resisted the white traders denial of their rights to free and fair trade of their local commodities. The present crisis can also be seen as the resistance of the people to the expropriation of their natural resources and the institutionalization of violence and coercion as instrument of political control. Furthermore, there is a link between the pre-crude oil and gas era and the oil and gas era. The link is the use of force or violence to rule the people of the region in order to forcefully deny them the rights to control their resources. The culture of violence being exhibited in the region is not healthy for the proper socialization of the youth. These youth having been raised and socialized in a culture of violence, would have grown internalizing violence and perhaps believe that all problems should be solved through violence (Ogunanya, 1999; Ifaturoti, 1994).

2.   The Oil and Gas Era

Phase I – Period of Peace for the Oil and Gas Firms and the People

This era marked the beginning of oil and gas exploration. The beginning of this era also witnessed peace and tranquility for the oil and gas companies as well as the people of the region. Ekpo (2004) notes that the oil and gas era can be said to have started in 1956 when oil and gas was discovered in commercial quantities by the then Shell D'Arcy in Oloibiri in present day Bayelsa State. This era has undergone many phases and it is on going. Following the discovery of crude oil in commercial quantity in Oloibiri, was the historic Henry Willink Commission Report of 1958. According to Azaiki (2003), the Commission was set up among other things, to

'ascertain the fact about the fears of the minorities in any part of Nigeria and to propose a means of allaying those fears whether well or ill founded' (p. 127). The commission recommended the establishment of a Federal Board to consider the problem of the Niger Delta. This gave rise to the establishment of the Niger Delta Development Board (NDDB) through the supplementary Federal Government gazette No. 56 Vol. 46 of September, 1959. The Board operated for six years and with the outbreak of the Nigerian Civil war died a natural death and with it the hope of the people of the Niger Delta to ever get a fair dealing, equity and justice from the Nigerian state. In support of this assertion, Ajumogobia (2009) observes that oil and gas was discovered in the Niger Delta over half a century ago and 30 billion barrels of oil and gas have been produced from the region, yet very little of the wealth is visible in the lives of the people of the region. He decries a situation where the population has no access to the basic amenities like roads, electricity, health, education or even portable water. These facts among others made the people of the region to agitate for resource control and the practice of true fiscal federalism. These agitations are also not without negative consequences for the people of the region and the youth who are at the forefront of the agitations.

Digifa (2003) aptly observes that the first six post independence years (1960 – 1966) witnessed peace and tranquility in the oil and gas sector of the economy as well as in the Niger Delta region. Utuama (2009), supporting this observation, remarks that the oil companies operated for this period without hindrance and they enjoyed the cooperation of the people of the region. This is as a result of the true federalism practiced then. He notes that Nigeria made more social and economic

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development during this period when the federating units invested residual powers with the four regions than after the civil war in 1970 when the military imposed a unitary state on the country, stifling local initiatives and converting Nigeria into a mono-economy. Utuama, therefore advises that the country should take advantage of the on-going review of the 1999 Constitution to return to true federalism with true fiscal arrangement for the allocation of revenue.

Phase II – Introduction of Youth Restiveness and Violence in the Area

This phase witnessed the introduction of youth restiveness and violence in the region. Youth restiveness in the Niger Delta started with Isaac Jasper Adaka Boro, who can be described as the initiator of armed struggle in the agitations of the people of the Niger Delta for the control of their natural resources. Boro, a young graduate from the University of Nigeria, Nsukka in 1964 formed the Niger Delta Volunteer Army against the Federal Government over the under development of the area despite the huge sums of money realized from the sale of crude oil from the region. He felt so bitter against the Nigerian state that he declared secession from the nation for his Ijaw people of the Niger Delta. His revolution lasted for twelve days before it was squashed. He was arrested and charged for felony against the Nigerian state. He was, however released and conscripted into the Nigerian army to fight the Biafran war because of his familiarity with the difficult terrain of the swampy Niger Delta area. He was believed to have been killed by the Federal Government in a set-up around the Port Harcourt area. After his death during the

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civil war, the agitations were suppressed by the military, which took over the reign of government (Digifa, 2003). However, in the 1980s, the agitations resumed.

Phase III – The Period of Non-Violent Agitations in the Region

The next phase of the agitations resumed in the 1980s when Ken Saro-wiwa started his campaigns against the Federal Government and oil companies over environmental degradation. This phase saw the introduction of a non violent approach to the Niger Delta crisis. It achieved a measure of success but it was short-lived. His style was refined and dignified. Through drama, literature, seminars, conferences and symposia both in Nigeria and abroad, he drew attention of the world to the plight of his Ogoni people of Rivers State by the operations of Shell Petroleum Development Company. Ken Saro-Wiwa was the initiator of the Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP) in 1990.The organization emerged to counter the actions of the Military Government and the Shell Petroleum Development Company which since 1958 had been taking away the people's oil and polluting the environment without giving them anything in return. When the Abacha led Military Government realized that Ken's agitation was receiving international recognition and was making impact, it decided to hang him with the Ogoni eight in 1995. After his extrajudicial murder, there was little or no agitation until 1999. With the advent of democracy in 1999, the agitations for social justice in the Niger Delta grew louder and the youth are in the vanguard of these agitations to open yet another phase of the struggle for self determination.

Phase IV – The Rise of Militia Groups in the Region

This phase witnessed the introduction of militia groups. If the violence visited on the Ogonis was aimed at deterring other youth of the Niger Delta from agitating for

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the control of their resources declares Digifa (2003), the Federal Government did not succeed. This is because a new phase of the struggle started in December, 1998 when over five thousand Ijaw youth gathered at the football field of the primary school in Kaiama, the home town of Isaac Boro to discuss how to tackle the problems created from the enslavement of the Ijaws by the Nigerian state. At the end of their deliberation, the youth made a fundamental resolution which is now known as the Kaiama Declaration. The Declaration asserts the natural right of the communities to the ownership of all lands and natural resources, upon which the people depend for survival. They also demanded the withdrawal of all military forces of occupation in the Niger Delta area among others. This period, according to Osuoka (2003), Azaiki (2003), and Timothy-Asobele (2007) witnessed the emergence of youth like Asari Dokuboh of the Niger Delta Volunteer Force, Henry Okah of the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND), Comrade Evah of the Ijaw Monitoring Group and many others. This period also witnessed the birth of multi-militia groups in the region like the Egbesu Boys of Africa (EBA), the Chikoko Movement, Ijaw Youth Council (IYC), and Isoko Youth National Movement (IYNM). Digifa (2003) avers that these separate groups have a way of interacting with one another, although he is of the opinion that MOSOP has not been able to work out a clear strategy for collaborating with other ethnic groups in the Niger Delta. This gap he believes is filled by the Ijaw Youth Congress and the Chikoko Movement. According to him, the Movement is the first of the youth groups to emerge with the clear purpose of uniting the various ethnic nationalities, the political and environmental groups into a formidable force working together to

bring about a fundamental restructuring of the Nigerian state where no man is oppressed. Adejunmobi (2003) alludes that instead of the Nigerian state to listen to the genuine demands of the youth, the region was militarized by the stationing of an 'army of occupation,' the Joint Task Force (JTF) in the oil producing communities to keep at bay restive youth, individuals and associations. Driven to frustrated heights, some groups in the communities also resorted to armed warfare ostensibly in self-defense. To Adejunmobi, these militia groups are not rebels, their aim is not to seize political power but to serve as social pressure groups to call attention to perceived marginalization and political deprivation of their social group. The researcher is of the opinion that when the struggle started it was genuine, devoid of personal gains. But today the violence is so pervasive, widespread and heightened that it is difficult to separate the genuine course from crime and illegality.

The large number of government security agents present in the region has in no way reduced the anti-social behaviours of the youth in terms if militancy and violence. It is therefore, pertinent to examine the source of funding for these youth who possess highly sophisticated weapons, bombs and ammunitions as shown in Appendix H (pp.252-254). Omotola (2009) points to both politicians and oil companies as groups who fund the activities of the youth in the region. He notes that both politicians and oil companies engaged the services of the youth for protection and security purposes and are handsomely paid. Hanson (2007:3) has documented instances of where oil companies pay companies owned by militant leaders to provide "security" to oil installations. These oil companies also pay allowances, perks and sometimes salaries to the militant leaders. Another source of

income is that the militants also engage in criminal activities such as kidnapping and demanding for ransom payment and illegal oil bunkering.

According to Osuoka (2003), so long as the Nigerian state still consciously restricts the political space and exclude others, the expression and the position of people will continue to be made through extralegal forms. This will in turn lead to increased violent conflict between the state and its people and among groups habouring grievances against the state and against each other. Osuoka also aptly observes that the problem of ethnic violence and internal conflicts are not restricted to Nigeria alone. There appear to be a growing tendency towards identity politics, ethnicity and fragmented loyalties in Africa, which is partly a product of globalization. It is glaring that global imperialists by weakening the national economies of most African countries and promoting the exploitation of selected commodities such as oil, diamonds and hardwood, promote a scramble for quick revenue often controlled by the central government and their foreign partners. A glance, he goes further, at the scramble for diamonds in Sierra Leone and Liberia by these global imperialists and the series of internal violence and the emergence of child-soldiers confirms this assertion. We can equally see in Nigeria how the state continues to inflict violence on the local Niger Delta communities to protect oil production and oil revenue. The marginalization of the people worsens their poverty status and increases the condition for internal violence. It is against this wider background of the contest of economic and political interests that one should locate the struggles of the oil bearing communities of the Niger Delta. Then suddenly, there appear to be a

window of hope opened for the youth and people of the Niger Delta by the Federal Government and this leads to another phase in the solution to the Niger Delta crisis.
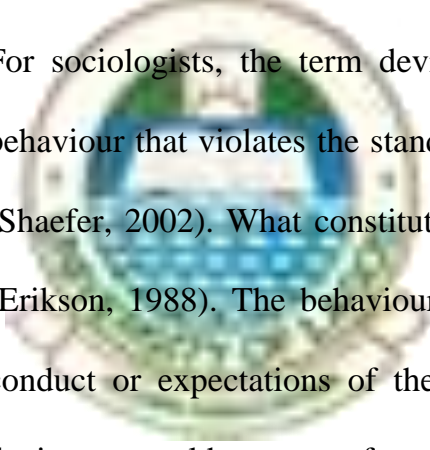
Phase V – The Amnesty Period

This phase ushered in the amnesty programme of the Federal Government. This phase in the Niger Delta crisis commenced when in September, 2009 the Federal Government initiated an amnesty programme for all arms carrying youth in the Niger Delta. Under this programme, the youth are to surrender their arms to the Federal Government so as to rehabilitate and reintegrate them back into the society. It is part of President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua's initiative to employ democratic mechanisms of dialogue and negotiation to tackle the crisis of the oil-rich region. The first phase of the amnesty programme came to a successful end on October 4, 2009 after several years of armed protests by insurgent groups in the Niger Delta. The response by the various groups of militants who embraced the deal and surrendered their arms is indicative of the popularity of the initiative. The process of surrendering the arms, the amount as well as the quality of arms surrendered and some of the leaders being received by the President in Abuja showed that Nigeria had taken a decisive step in favour of peaceful resolution of the conflict.

While the President and the armed youth should be commended for this bold step in the history of the Niger Delta crisis, some doubts still linger about the outcome of the post amnesty phase. Some Nigerians are skeptical as to the genuiness of the Federal Government's intention because there is no concrete road map for the disarmament. Other Nigerians are of the opinion that the Niger Delta youth have not

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surrendered all their guns. While others view the Federal Government's amnesty programme as palliative and if the Federal Government does not move fast to start the development of the region the peace process will collapse. There is no doubt that there are envisaged post amnesty challenges. The post amnesty period is not within the scope of this study as the events are still unfolding and history will be a better judge here.

2.2   Deviant Theories
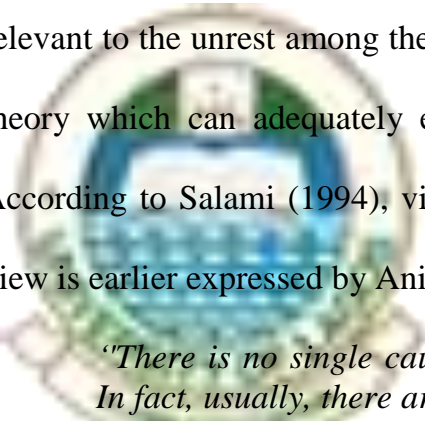
For sociologists, the term deviance does not mean perversion or depravity; it is behaviour that violates the standard of conduct or expectations of a group or society (Shaefer, 2002). What constitutes deviance varies from one social group to another (Erikson, 1988). The behaviour of the youth in this study violates the standard of conduct or expectations of the Nigerian society, hence a look at the theories of deviance would account for more understanding of the social and perhaps the psychological, socio-political and socio-economic issues involved in this study.

A glance at the various theories of deviant behaviours by sociologists and criminal psychologists reveals that there are a variety of influences and a network of precipitating and predisposing factors responsible for youth violence. Urban sociologists emphasize the unconventionality of city life and attribute deviant behaviour to urban malady, a manifestation of urban subcultures, among others (Wirth, 1988; Gans, 1962; Agnelli, 1986 and Fischer, 1995). However, from

observation, deviant behaviours are not restricted to urban areas alone. There is the *strain theory* that attributes delinquent behaviour to accumulated frustrations arising from structured inequalities and impediments to the attainment of socially defined success (Durkheim, 1964, 1973; Agnew, 2001). Next, is the *control theory* which emphasizes the failure of family and school experiences to establish social bonds (Hirschi, 1969). The *differential association theory* recognizes the effects of sustained exposure to deviant behaviours and peer groups (Sutherland, 1970); and the *labeling theory* focuses on the effects of successive stages of deviant stigmatization.

It is important to note that all these factors are interwoven and inter-related as well as relevant to the unrest among the Niger Delta youth. In other words, there is no single theory which can adequately explain the causes of violence among these youth. According to Salami (1994), violence when deeply examined is multi-causal. This view is earlier expressed by Anifowose (1982) when he writes that:

> *"There is no single cause of violence which is more or less potent. In fact, usually, there are multiple causes and important contributing conditions rooted in historical relationships and brought to violence by a variety of catalysts'* (Anifowose, 1982, p.5).

This recognition of the multi-causes of violence suggests that any efforts aimed at combating or preventing youth restiveness must in the main be approached from the angle of existing social context. And the behavioural manifestation of violence in an individual is socio-psychological in nature. According to Olanrewaju (2004),

> *'That many of the difficulties our youth face today come as a result of sociological problems alone is half truth. We cannot concentrate on sociological problems alone to be able to get the whole clear picture of the root cause of the problems of young people in our society. In order to get the clear picture, we must also scrutinize the psychological development that may be causing behavioural problems in their lives'* (Olanrewaju, 2004, p.102).

Therefore, selective deviant theories from the sociological, socio-psychological and political-economic perspectives that bear relevance to this study were examined.

2.2.1 Anomie-strain Theories

The first major sociological deviance theory focuses on how individuals fit into the economic structure of the society and seek to attain cultural goals. The concept of 'anomie' (a societal condition of normlessness) was initially formulated by Durkheim (1858-1917). His work was adopted by Merton (1968) to develop the Anomie-Strain theory with an economic focus.

The word 'Anomie' is from the Greek word 'anomia' linked to the adjective 'anomos' meaning without law (Marshal, 1996). Anomie means a condition of normlessness, a moral vacuum, the suspension of rules and a state sometimes referred to as deregulation (Coser and Rosenberg 1976). In sociology, the term is most frequently identified with the work of Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) and Robert Merton (1910-2003). The exponents of this theory are of the view that people commit deviant actions when society fails to provide individuals with opportunities to achieve the goals that are considered desirable.

Durkheim saw the social disorder and the deviant behaviours of the 19th century French society as the emergence of a new social environment due to the disintegration in the traditional social system which emphasized close social relationships. Traditional institutions such as the family and community had functioned to ensure the social integration of the society by providing socialization, social support and mental stability for its members. But with the sudden prosperity

of France at this period, the economic depression and collapse that followed resulted in a rapid social change. As a result of this, traditional societal norms and rules lost their ability to regulate behaviour, thus resulting in the state of normlessness and what Durkheim called 'anomie'. Pressures towards deviance develop because aspirations no longer seem to match possibilities of fulfillment. The legitimate desires that cannot be satisfied through conformity to the norms, values and rules of the society is one said to force people into deviant behaviours.

Merton (1968) adopted Durkheim's notion of anomie to the conditions in the United States' society and developed the anomie-strain theory of deviance. In his theory, Merton is concerned with explaining three things. First is the cause of widespread breakdown of norms in a society. Second, are the modes of adaptation (conformist or deviance) to the normless situation by members of the different strata of the society and finally, is the variation in the rates at which the members in the different strata choose their adaptation.
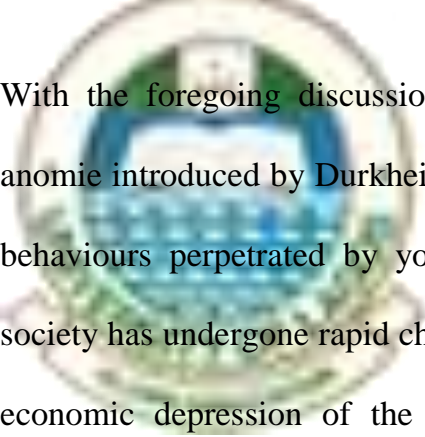
In explaining the breakdown of norms, values and rules in a society, Merton maintains that an important cultural goal in the United States is success, measured largely in terms of money. In providing this goal to the people, the society offers the means of achieving the goal such as education, hard work and thrift. What then happens to individuals in a society with a heavy emphasis on wealth as a basic symbol of success is that people adapt in certain ways, either by conforming to or deviating from such cultural expectations. Here, he recognized that access to legitimate means is bound by class and status, resulting in strain and stress which

produce an anomic condition for those who are locked out of the legitimate opportunity structure. Consequently, they develop criminal or deviant solutions to the problems of attaining societal goals. Conversely, the members of the society who accept the goal of success and are proud with the means of its attainment will find it very easy to conform to the norms of such a society and generally be disciplined, law abiding citizens of the society and be upholders of many of its norms, values and rules. This group of people he calls conformists.

According to Merton, different strata of the society who are less favoured by means of achieving set goals try to relieve their sense of deprivation through various deviant modes of adaptation which are rebellion, retreatism, innovation and ritualism. To Merton, some people may feel alienated from dominant means and goals and may seek a new social structure. They aggressively engage either in various forms of criminal behaviour or equally aggressively seek rebellious or revolutionary forms of activities to create a new social environment. This group he calls rebels. Others may adapt passively by rejecting the success goal and the legitimate means of its attainment by escaping into psychosomatic illness, such as mental disorders, drug addiction, alcoholism, suicide, membership of other worldly religious sects and cultism. This group he refers to as retreatists. Yet others may accept the goal of success but go about their life business using illegitimate ways for upward mobility. This group he calls innovationists. Yet the ritualists abandon the goal of material success and become very committed to the institutional means. To this group of people, work simply becomes a way of life rather than a means to the goal of success. This group can be seen in the case of bureaucratic officials who

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blindly apply rules and regulations without remembering the larger goal of an establishment.

In conclusion, Merton stresses that he is not describing five types of individuals in the modes of adaptation but he offers a typology to explain the actions that people usually take. Thus an individual will move back and forth from one mode of adaptation to another, depending on the demands of a particular situation. Although the anomie theory of deviance with its five forms of adaptations has been unable to determine to what extent all acts of deviance can be accounted for, it has made a key contribution to the sociological understanding that deviance is socially created.

With the foregoing discussion, it could be said that the sociological theory of anomie introduced by Durkheim has a lot of implications for the kind of anti-social behaviours perpetrated by youth of the Niger Delta of Nigeria. The Nigerian society has undergone rapid changes such as the sudden prosperity of the 1970s, the economic depression of the 1980s and 1990s and the present period of near economic collapse. These rapid social environmental changes have lowered the ability of the traditional societal norms and rules to regulate social behaviour resulting in normlessness. Also contributing to the state of normlessness in Nigeria is the change of cultural values from hard work, integrity, justice, obedience and truth to the reward of corruption, disobedience and the worship of money. According to Ifaturoti (1996), the youth who do not exist in a vacuum, observe this unhealthy social environment and the breakdown of societal values and norms. They emulate the behaviour of the outer society where persons who have achieved
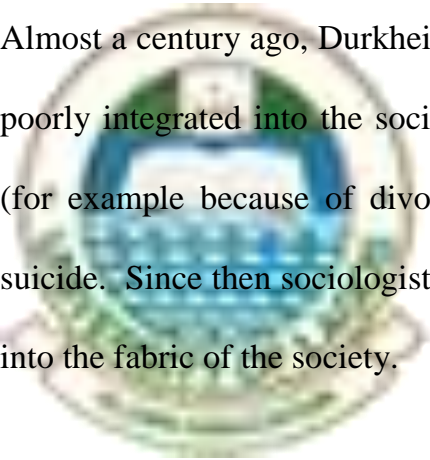
success through corruption, armed robbery, stealing and violence are lauded. The signal sent to the youth is that anti-social activities are acceptable means of achieving success, wealth and recognition in society. They are more likely to imitate these acts of anti-social behaviour because they are not punished but rewarded. Thus, the Nigerian society in this way can be seen as the source and motivator of anti-social behaviours in the youth.

Equally, the following analysis explores the meaningfulness of Merton's anomie-strain theory and its adaptation for explaining the anti-social behaviour of the youth in this study. Merton's adaptations of innovation, retreatism and rebellion seem very relevant to the understanding of deviant behaviour of the youth in this study. Considering the apparent inequality in the social distribution of legitimate means of fulfilling desired goals, it is not surprising that a large segments of the youth in the Niger Delta react to the resulting anomie with innovation such as theft, extortion, robbery, abduction for ransom; with retreat into drugs or alcohol or with rebellion by joining revolutionary or cultist groups as evident in the Rivers State situation.

The major contribution of the anomie-strain theories of deviance is the focus on subculture. The theories' focus on subculture is very relevant here. Most of these youth are in various camps in the creeks and they live in these camps from where they carry out their anti-social activities. Their activities are accepted by the group despite the condemnation from the larger society.

Also of interest is the recognition that people who are poor or from low socio-economic background are most likely to be deviants according to Merton's theory. This assertion corresponds with the general notions held by most people in Nigeria and the Niger Delta about these youth. But one of the findings of this study which tested this variable is in the contrary. Youth from the middle socio-economic background were most attracted to violence. The reason for this may not be far fetched. It is most likely that youth from this social background are brought up to know their rights and to agitate when the rights are violated.

2.2.2 Social Control Theories

Almost a century ago, Durkheim (1858-1917) discovered that individuals who were poorly integrated into the society or who had their social bonds to society broken (for example because of divorce or loss of employment) were likely to commit suicide. Since then sociologists have continued to study how individuals are woven into the fabric of the society.

The most important contemporary advocate of this theoretical perspective has been Hirschi (1969). He postulated that people with weak social bonds (in relation to attachments, belief, involvements and commitments to social order) would be more delinquent. In recent theoretical effort, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) stress the importance of low self-control as a general explanatory variable. Other social control theories have hypothesized that individuals who experience major conflicts, disruptions and / or failures in their social relationship would commit crime or would be deviants. These sociologists have examined the main social worlds that

an individual occupies for conditions that might weaken or strengthen commitment to the legitimate social order.

According to Klemke (1997), sociologists and psychologists have long considered the family to be an important potential source of deviant behavior. For example, sociological social control theorists have spent a great deal of effort to uncover how family factors are related to juvenile delinquency. Nye's early research cited by Akers (2000) found that delinquency was more strongly related to the quality of family relationship than to the structural features of the family. Adeniyi (2005) asserts that aggressive young persons invariably came from unstable and conflict ridden homes in which fights and arguments were very common occurrences. Supporting this assertion, Oni (2005) infers that children who grew up in a home where violence is a way of life may learn to believe that such behaviour is acceptable and rewarding and therefore, may grow up as violent adults. Also, Aneke (2009) observes that the recent waves of indiscipline in Nigeria by way of corruption, stealing, armed robbery and all sorts of anti-social behaviour could be traced back to earlier home training and development. Also, Holmes, Slaughter and Kashani (2001) in their study reveal that children are at fifty percent greater risk of engaging in criminal acts or anti-social behaviour, if they were neglected or abused. Furthermore, the school being a central involvement for youths has also been emphasized by social control theorists (Hirschi, 1969). Here peer groups, teachers and acceptance of school authority are taken into consideration.

Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) emphasize the variable of low self-control. To them, low self-control is responsible for many deviant acts. Although this study did not test self-control it tested self-efficacy. And although self-control is not exactly the same as self-efficacy, the concept of 'self' is central to both of them. Just as low self-control is responsible for many deviant acts, the finding of this research reveals that participants with low self-efficacy are more vulnerable to violence.

2.2.3   Socialization-Reinforcement Theories

Socialization theories add a new dimension to the study of deviance (Klemke 1997). While social control theories focus on the quality of one's relationships, socialization theorists are more concerned with the content of what one learns from one's significant others.   One of the most influential sociological theories and also the most important deviant socialization theory is Sutherland's differential association theory (1970).   He was very much interested in how individuals and social influences interacted and so his theory is also considered to be an interactionist theory.   To him, criminal behavior is often a product of cultural transmission.   Individuals may be socialized by deviant significant others about specific crimes techniques and attitudes necessary to commit deviance or crime. More specifically, Sutherland states that the earlier, more frequently and longer one is exposed to criminal patterns endorsed by individual whom one really cares about, the greater the likelihood that one will also manifest those criminal patterns. Other theorists like Burgess and Akers (cited in Akers, 2000) have revised Sutherland's original formulation to incorporate social learning or reinforcement principles.

Akers' reports on his empirical research on adolescent drug use that supports this theoretical perspective is applicable to all types of deviance.

2.2.4 Labeling Theory

Unlike the *differential association theory*, the *labeling theory* does not focus on why some individuals commit deviant acts. It attempts to explain why certain people are viewed or stigmatized as deviants, delinquents, 'bad kids,' 'losers' and criminals while others whose behaviour is similar are not seen in such harsh terms. Howard Becker cited by Shaefer, (2002) sums it up thus: 'Deviant behavior is behaviour that people are so label.' Becker (1963) the sociologist discusses elaborately how crime and deviance are social processes wherein people become deviant and have their deviant identities further reinforced through definitions or 'labels' that authorities impose on such people.

Becker's labeling theory, according to Brown (2004) challenged the idea that selected social behaviours come under scrutiny of powerful authorities and get labeled as deviant or criminal. To him, the labeling theory is, therefore, less concerned with what causes the onset of an initial deviant act but more with the effect that official handling by police, court and correctional agencies has on the future of youths who fall into the arms of the law. This is in agreement with Akers (2000) earlier view that the theory treats such labels as both a dependable variable (effect) and an independent variable (cause). And it is the aspect of the labeling theory in which the application of socially stigmatizing labels is hypothesized to be an independent cause of deviance that clearly distinguishes it from other theoretical

perspective on deviance. While other theories may recognize that the enforcement of law meant to deter deviance sometimes has the unintended consequences of provoking more deviance, this notion is central to labeling theory.

So, the principal strength of the labeling theory is that it calls attention to the unintended consequences of social control. The principal weakness of this theory is its neglect of primary deviance and seriously underestimating the influence of other variables on behaviour. However, recent efforts to revise the theory have viewed stigmatizing labels as only indirectly tied to deviance and restorative justice is being recommended for the labels (Bazemore and Umbreit, 1998) or 'outsiders' (Becker, cited in Shaefer, 2002).

Becker's labeling theory could be explained in relation to the violent activities of youth in this study by saying that these youth become criminals and deviants when authorities launch disparaging media campaigns against them and stigmatize them as threat to the social order. The resultant effect is that the Federal Government has deployed soldiers to check the violent activities of restless youth in the Niger Delta and they have been labeled militants.

According to Oni (2005), the labeling theory could be seen from the view point that crime and deviance are learned behaviour in conjunction with labeling processes that are infused with power, authority and social control. Consequently, the researcher is of the view, that if the restive youth are persuaded to see reason to desist from their negative actions, are rehabilitated, given an alternative means of sustainable livelihood and the Federal Government can see reason not to label them,

perhaps a genuine and positive reintegration of these youth with society can take place. This kind of treatment can be seen in the recent action of the Federal Government in its Amnesty programme for the arms carrying youth of the Niger Delta. The armed youth are to lay down their arms for a rehabilitation and reintegration into the society. This has been done.

But the post amnesty programme is not yet well articulated by government which is advocating skills acquisition and starter packs for the boys to be reintegrated into the society. This would be highly inadequate for the youth who have been dislocated from a decent society for a very long time. Also, the findings of this study have revealed that skills acquisition alone is not sufficient to dissuade the youth from their violence and anti-social activities. There is the need for a general social education in addition to the skills acquisition to be given to these youth to achieve a better result of proper rehabilitation and reintegration into the society.

2.2.5 Political-Economic Perspective

This theoretical perspective views violence as a form of adaptive response to many years of military rule, militarism and economic crises arising most especially from Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). According to Adejumobi (2002), Alamieyesigha (2005) and Oni (2005), the long military rule and the economic crises from SAP have made youth born during these periods to internalize the norms and actions of violence, intimidation and repression as legitimate means of demand.

From a practical perspective, connection exists between the activities of the military and the violence exhibited by the youth in this study. The military operates with the

premise of war, bombs, violence and destruction. The Egbesu boys of Rivers, Delta and Balyesa States do the same, bombing cars and oil installations, killing people and destroying properties. Both are shrouded in violence which they see as avenues of amassing power and influence, whether real or imagined.

2.3   Treatment Strategy

There exists in the Niger Delta area of Nigeria the daunting problem of youth unrest and violence. These youth are involved in anti-social activities such as robbery, drug addiction, sex abuse, extortion, rioting, vandalism, kidnapping, bombing of cars and oil installations to mention but a few (Balogun, 1999; Alamieyesigha, 2005). The anti-social activities of these youth constitute a menace to the people of the region and a source of embarrassment to the three tiers of government. Therefore, this study seeks to proffer a solution to this problem by recommending education in the form of socialization as skills acquisition and social education or advocacy and persuasion. To this end some socio- psychological variables which are; self-efficacy, socio-economic background, religiosity, gender and general success expectancy of the youth in this study are investigated.

Skills acquisition is the ability to learn a trade or craft like pottery, fish farming, welding, weaving, metal fabrication, sewing, and so on. The aim of the skills acquisition is to enable the product of such education to earn a living. According to Oriaifor (2005), skills acquisition like science and technology education should be seen not only for its economic benefits but also its mental and moral development of people, particularly the nation's youth. The process method, discovery and

inquiry approaches employed in the teaching and learning of any skill or craft foster the development of desirable traits known as scientific attitudes in the learner. These scientific attitudes include patience, curiosity, originality, humility, simplicity, cooperation, punctuality, regularity, honesty, empiricism, carefulness, diligence, reliance on evidence, resourcefulness, courage, respect for labour, concern for accuracy and inquisitiveness. All the above values and attitudes are what the youth of today and the Niger Delta youth in particular are in short supply of. As such, skills education will go a long way in inculcating in the youth who undergo such education, morals and the ability to develop critical thinking intelligence, aid problem-solving and creativity. This is corroborated by Wahab (1995) and Shittu-Gbeko (1995). Both of them reveal that weaving by adolescents in Iseyin has increased their level of literacy, discouraged juvenile acts by keeping the youth busy and also preventing them from roaming the streets.

On the above premise, skills acquisition in combination with a general social education or advocacy is recommended to the youth. Social advocacy according to Mpofu (2009) is the representation done by anyone committed to the concerns of any particular group. Such concerns could be rights based or needs based. In this study, it is needs based. It is a method of reaching people with the sole aim of enlightenment on issues that affect the wellbeing of those perceived to be in danger due to ignorance. Social advocacy takes the form of persuasion. Persuasion is a form of social influence which involves the process of guiding people and oneself towards the adoption of an idea, attitude or action by rational and symbolic means

(Wikipedia, 2009). It is a strategy of problem-solving relying on 'appeals' to reason, faith and emotions rather than coercion.

The use of social advocacy in the solution of human social problems is not in doubt. The tool of social advocacy was used by South Africa to dismantle apartheid. In a recent study, Jegede, Ememe and Gami (2008) show that peace education is a very effective tool for transforming deviant behaviour among secondary school students in Lagos State. Social advocacy and campaigns have also recorded success in Public Health all over the world and in Nigeria in particular. According to Ileuma (2009), HIV/AIDS was discovered in Nigeria in 1986. He observes that the prevalence rate increased from 1.6% to 5.8% between 1991 and 2000. After series of advocacy, sensitization and campaigns (all forms of social advocacy), in 2005, the first downward turn was recorded at 4.4% and since then the prevalence rate has been on the downward trend.

The general social education or advocacy given to the youth in this study took the form of lectures, films, video clips and the active participation of the youth. They were taken through topics like peace and war, Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS), drug abuse and trafficking, population and sex education, role modelling (of young achievers from the region and the world) and goal setting and conflicts and conflicts resolution. The aim of this advocacy is to help the youth to change their negative mindsets.

2.3.1   Social Variables Associated with Youth Restiveness

The social variables associated with youth restiveness which are investigated in the study are self-efficacy, socio-economic background, gender, generalized expectancy for success and religious affiliation.

2.3.1.1   Self-efficacy

This means how an individual conceptualizes himself, his abilities and potentials in relation to tasks before him and his actions and choice of behaviour. The construct self-efficacy evolved out of Bandura's (1977, 1986) social cognitive model of behavior. According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy refers to people's judgement of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances. To him, interaction between the individual and environment causes behaviour. The individual's perception then plays a key role in this process – especially the perception that there is personal efficacy in exercising over what they do and what happens to them. Bandura (1977) identifies four factors as key elements that influence self-efficacy. These are performance attainment, vicarious learning, social persuasion and psychological arousal.

Researchers like (Bandura, 1977, 1986 and Pajares, 1996) have established self-efficacy beliefs and behaviour changes and outcomes as highly correlated and that self-efficacy is an excellent predictor of behaviour. Gary and Pears (1992), affirm that changing an individual's knowledge of self-efficacy will bring about relatively permanent change in behaviour and that people with high self-efficacy perception enjoy enhanced human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. Pajares (2000) enthuses that unrealistically low self-efficacy perceptions, not lack of capability or skill, may, in part be responsible for avoidance of certain tasks.

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Individuals who lack confidence in skills they possess are not likely to engage in tasks in which those skills are required and they will more quickly give up in the face of difficulty. Such individuals might resort to anti-social behaviours.

Multon, Brown and Lent (1991) say that self-efficacy is a relatively new construct in academic research. Servaty-Seib, (2006) and Edun and Akanji, (2008) affirm that despite the fact that self-efficacy is relatively new in academic research, recent studies have shown that self-efficacy holds strong significant power for predicting and explaining performance in various domain. Zimmerman, Bandura and Martinez-Pons (1992), demonstrate that academic self-efficacy mediated the influence of self-eficacy for self regulated learning and academic achievement. Also Pajares and Miller (1994) in an examination of the meditational role and the predictive power of self-efficacy in mathematics problem solving, found out that self-efficacy held greater predictive power for a problem solving success than did mathematics self concept, background, and gender. However, both were significantly related to self-efficacy, thus supporting Bandura's assertion of the meditational role of self-efficacy on performance. Pajares (2002) discovers that students' self-efficacy beliefs influence their academic performance in many ways. In Edun et al (2008), out of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and academic self-regulation, self efficacy was the most potent predictor of students' academic performance. In Aremu (2009), self-efficacy is positively correlated to the social competence of the youngsters in his study.

2.3.1.2 Socio-economic background and Youth Restiveness

The concept of socio-economic background (SEB) is common to most societies. According to Wikipedia (2009), socio-economic status or background is an economic and sociological combined total measure of a person's work experience and an individual's or family's economic and social position relative to others based on income, education and occupation. It goes further to say that SEB is typically broken into three categories of high SEB, middle SEB and low SEB to describe the three areas a family or individual may fall into. Ajayi (1980) had earlier opined that in classifying people into different socio-economic status, sociologists use different indicators according to the type of research to be undertaken. Most importantly they use occupation, level of education and income. Based on these, they group socio-economic status into hierarchical order, the most commonly used being upper, middle and lower classes. Faji (1999) in her socio-economic scale made use of the following items in classifying her participants: parents' occupation, educational levels, residence, ownership of motor vehicles and luxuries at home.

Drawing from the information above, the socio-economic status of the participants in this study was determined by the responses on the Personal Data Questionnaire. It contains items relating to the parents' educational level and occupation, home ownership and luxuries in the home. This enabled the researcher to group the participants into high, middle and low socio-economic background.

Examining the influence of socio-economic background on deviants, Durkheim (1875-1917), the founding father of sociology, in his anomie theory focuses on the subculture of deviants. opines that young people raised in poor neighbourhood and in criminal subculture are more vulnerable to deviant behaviour because such

deviant actions are accepted as the norms in such subculture. Merton (1935) alludes to Durkheim's views when he asserts that the wealthy are more conformists to the rules and laws of the American society because they possess the legitimate means of attaining the desired societal goals. But poor people have barriers to legitimate career opportunities, so they experience frustrations and become deviants.

In series of studies carried out by Odekunle (1986) and Omisakin (1998), they identify poverty and unemployment as the major causes of crime in Nigeria. So, deviants are more likely to come from the low socio-economic background. Faji (1999), in her study discovers that drug abuse is most prevalent among youngsters from low socio-economic status group because the major source of supply is through street hawkers and mallams who live in their neighbourhood. Similarly, Oni (2007) reveals that young persons from low economic background are most vulnerable to deviance.

But the result of this study negates the results shown above. In the study, the youth from the middle socio-economic background were the most favourably disposed to violence. The reason may well be that the youth in the middle socio-economic background were brought up to recognize their rights and encouraged to agitate when such rights are violated.

2.3.1.3 Gender and Youth Restiveness

According to Scribe (2001), gender refers to culture and should be used when referring to men and women as a social group in academic research. Plake cited by Aremu (2009) states that it is important to include gender as a demographic

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factor in studying the behaviour of youngsters within a social context. In the light of this, gender was included as a variable to be examined in the study.

Literature on youth restiveness in the Niger Delta has always presented the male restive youth as the only actors in the theater of violence and militancy in the region. The male restive youth are very visible and are paraded as gun trotters, kidnappers, pirates, rapists, illegal oil bunkerers, armed robbers and the like. The female youth from the region are not so branded as restive as their male counterparts. This because historically, all over the world, female deviance has not been treated as men's deviance duly because men have always been seen as 'real offenders' (Banks cited in Aneke, 2009). According to Belknap (2001), both men and women commit the same kinds of offences but women in few cases. In support of this, Carlen (2002) and Chesney-Lind (2002) assert that women's crimes are few, physically less dangerous and less injurious. They contend that men are traditionally thought to be more aggressive than women and more likely to commit certain kinds of crime. Maccoby and Jacklin cited by Aremu (2009) concur that males are more aggressive than females.

Females are seen to commit few crimes which are physically less dangerous and less injurious because of their nature as mothers and home builders. In support of this assertion, Greenfield and Snell (1999) confirm that the kinds of crime committed by women include drunkenness, vagrancy, wandering, prostitution, abortion, property crime including theft, fraud, shoplifting, drug offences as well as violent crimes among others. In the same vein and in Nigeria, Ozo-Eson

(2004) lists women offences to include drug trafficking, murder, manslaughter, stealing/theft, assault/fighting, fraud, firearm possession, child abuse, abortion, smuggling, prostitution, streetwalking and armed robbery among others. She concludes that drug trafficking offences usually top the list. It accounts for 70% of all reported crimes. It is a way of making quick money.

It is significant to note that drug trafficking offences accounts for 70% of all female offences, yet this destructive trade and the role of female offenders are over looked and down-played in finding a solution to youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. Therefore, the inclusion of drugs and drugs trafficking in the general social education cannot be overemphasized.

Oloruntimehin (1981) observes that a few numbers of female offenders engage in violent crimes such as armed robbery, willful homicide and aggravated assault. This may be attributable to why in the history of youth unrest in the Niger Delta, the role of female youngsters has not been noticed and given attention. Another reason could be that the restive female youth play subservient roles. They perhaps work under the direction and supervision of the male restive youth who are their lovers, husbands or pimps. In most instances, their jobs are to entice victims, to distract or look out for police, to carry the loot or to provide necessary cover. In confirmation of this fact, Aneke (2009) states that women are known not to 'mastermind' planning and execution of such crimes but are used as bait to entice men.

2.3.1.4   Generalized Expectancy for Success and Restiveness

This concept is introduced into research construct by Fibel and Hale (1978) to assess the generalized expectancy of being successful. It has a significant influence on how individuals perceive success, problems, situations and opportunities, identifying courses of action for one's reaction and/ or life styles (Longe, 2008). Schaefer (2002) opines that positive expectancy is essential for success. An absolutely crucial ingredient towards the accomplishment of any worthwhile endeavour is the mindset you can and will achieve the reality you want. To him, a person who practices the attitude of positive expectancy becomes proficient at turning problems into solutions, embraces responsibility and attacks adversity as an opportunity for learning and strengthening abilities and resolve. The depth of an individual's success greatly depends upon his commitment to his positive expectations.

According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996), the expectancy construct in various guises, is one of the most important mediators of achievement behaviour. It can, therefore be argued that it is an important variable to be explored in the process of turning youth around to be of acceptable behaviour in society.

2.3.1.5   Religious Views or Affiliations and Youth Restiveness.

The sociology of religion is concerned with the role of religion in society (Diafiewhare, 2008) and the most significant role of religion is the transmission of moral values to the society. He opines that the moral values of love of God, man and communities were present in the traditional societies of the Niger Delta before the advent of Christianity. Christianity reinforced these values and it was easier for youth in the 50s and 60s to be more disciplined than the youth of today. To him, the

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present day youth are confused about real values because of the rapid transformation of the society, lack of parental care, globalization and modern technology.

Balogun (1999) and Atoyebi (1999) stress the importance of moral education to the youth of today by parents. Balogun recognizes and attributes the involvement of youth in drug abuse, violence, kidnapping and other anti-social behaviours to the lack of good education and sound moral up brining of these youth by their parents. In agreement with Balogun (1999), Rene, Duane, Allen, Baltzar and McCoy (2001) highlight the protective effects of religion on drug use, HIV risk and violence among youth in the United States. The findings of their study indicate that religiosity is associated with less drug use, decreased engagement in HIV risk behaviours and less exposure to and engagement in violence. They conclude by saying that communities of faith and religious institutions may be important access points for HIV risk and violence prevention/reduction projects. The study also suggests that it is important to incorporate religiosity into a broad array of thinking about drug use. Adeniji (1999) and Olayiwola (2009) concur when they stress the importance of investigating the role of religious views in studies relating to the attitudes and behaviours of young people. Their studies show that young people listen to religious leaders and respect their views and counsel, hence the inclusion of this variable to this study.

2.4   Problems of Youth Worldwide and the Problems of the African Youth in a Changing World

Young persons, irrespective of race, colour or creed share certain characteristics. These characteristics are as a result of growth and development from one stage of life to the other. The concept of young persons in this study includes late adolescents since there is no clear-cut distinction between the description of adolescents and youth. Bamgboye (2004), in support of this fact asserts that there is always an overlap between these two groups. It is extremely difficult to specify the onset and the end of childhood and the attainment of adulthood because they occur at different times for different people. Moreover, Tomavonic – Mihajlovic (2002) and Watson and Brazier (2002) define adolescence as the period between childhood and adulthood. Sociologically, Tamuno (1991) and Chigunta (2002) describe youth as the period of interplay between childhood and adulthood. Therefore, late adolescents and youth share in these common characteristics worldwide and they make up the youth in this study.

The characteristics shared by young persons all over the world include developmental problems such as identify crises, peer group pressure and dropout syndrome to mention a few. According to Bamgboye (2004), researchers in the field of adolescents and youth have agreed on certain characteristics they share irrespective of whether it is considered from the biological, psychological or sociological perspective. This transitory period from childhood to adulthood is said to be a period of 'storm and stress' (Hall, cited in Bamgboye, 2004), a period of 'ambivalence and conflict', and a period of 'explosion' (Erickson, 1950; Hilgar, 1992). According to Emeka (1996), it is also said to be a period when an enriched family and social environment should be supportive of the young adult to enable

him successfully cross the threshold of stress and conflict into wholesome adulthood. But where this family and social support is absent, the youth can develop anti-social behaviours. Osarenren (2005) and Oni (2005) both agree that this period is also characterized with strong peer group pressure. The youth tend to form personal identities independent of parental models. They seek new experiences that tend to accommodate personal, social and psychological demands. There is the propensity for young persons to experiment with different lifestyles expressed in their changing attire, interests, manners and general behaviour. Naturally, they turn to their peers found in their neighbourhood, room-mates, friends or dating partners for solution to new problems. Without adequate care and positive adult guidance, young persons could be led astray by their peers and eventual dropout syndrome and teenage pregnancies manifested.

Ilogu (1996) opines that any young person who on account of behaviour problem, voluntarily leaves school prior to graduation and does not enter another school to continue his education is a dropout. He is also of the view that dropping out syndrome is a worldwide problem. It occurs in both developing and developed countries. According to Ilogu (1996) the incidence of dropouts in schools amounts to educational wastage, mass unemployment and illiteracy, juvenile delinquency, criminal activities, retaining costs, loss of potential manpower and both social and emotional maladjustment.

Despite the fact that youth worldwide share the above problems in the course of growing up to become adults, they also have a veritable characteristic to their

advantage. Collier (1997) extols the positive qualities of the youth when he describes their levels of thinking and reasoning at this stage of development as advanced, efficient and generally more effective. They reason more like adults and they are less dependent on their parents. They can discuss issues such as religion, politics and economy relatively well. They are mentally alert and most of them are good in Mathematics, Computing and technical subjects. Therefore, this is really the period to teach them skills, crafts, arts and technical education because they can use their brains and hands very well. This period too is about the best to help them develop self-efficacy beliefs or skills. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Perceived self-efficacy represents people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce effects, result or success. Bandura (1977, 1986) and Pajares (2000) affirm that people with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided. They set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them and as such can succeed in the face of failure. In all of these, the idea of expectancy for success plays an important role in that most people will not choose to do a task or continue to engage in a task when they expect to fail (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). Helping youth to motivate themselves by setting goals for themselves, having self-confidence and a general expectancy to achieve success, can make them to be well adjusted members of the society, living fulfilled lives.

However, the contemporary African youth is passing through a changing world and as such an avalanche of problems. Therefore, a discussion on the problems of the African youth in a changing world will make for a better appreciation of the present

day youth and the problem of youth violence or restiveness. According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), human development is a product of the interaction between the growing human organism and his environment. As such any consideration of youth and their problems must focus not just on the young persons themselves but also on the social settings within which they function. Adegoke (2003) draws attention to the fact that the transition to adulthood and the continuous transformation in the society are intimately related, since social institutions cannot exist without socialization, neither can human beings survive without social context.

Mlama (1999) and Akuffo (2001) observe that young people in Africa growing up during the 1960s and 1970s did not pose serious social problems as we have at the moment. Available evidence from general observation suggests that the situation of the African youth is changing as a result of the changing culture and the African society itself. The African youth is growing into adulthood amidst a maelstrom of economic, political, social and cultural changes. On the political and economic scenes, Africa has and is still experiencing changes. With the down turn of the economy of most African States as a result of the Structural Adjustment Programme of the 1980s by the World Bank, came political upheaval in the continent. There were civil wars, ethnic rivalries and political instability. These have resulted in the emergence of 'child' soldiers; a growing phenomenon in Africa mostly dramatized in the Liberian civil war, the massacre in Rwanda and Burundi, the Sudanese and the Sierra-Leone civil wars, the anarchy in Somalia and other theatres of conflict in the continent. The generation of youth born, schooled and developed against this

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background of cruelty and barbarism clearly spells doom for the future of the continent.

At the social and cultural levels, Wangari (2009) affirms that many coping mechanisms for young people in the African society to smoothly transit from puberty to adulthood are fast dying off. The institutions, customs and traditions such as 'passage rites' or puberty rites were organized for both male and female youth, where they were educated and taught how to be well adjusted adults. For example, in Senegal, Laye (1954) describes the passage rites of male circumcision to adulthood where the male is taught bravery. Among the Ibibios and Efiks of Cross River and Akwa-Ibom, and the Uwherun and Ughievwen of Delta State, young females were circumcised and taught how to become responsible mothers and housewives by elder females of the society. But female circumcision is today criticized and called 'female gentile mutilation' to discourage its practice. With the stoppage of these cultural rites in societies where they were practiced, the conscious teaching of young females to be good mothers and wives is being undermined. Most youth of today are, therefore, unprepared for the roles of adulthood.

The consequences of these political, economic, social and cultural changes impact negatively on the majority of the African youth. Adegoke (2003) opines that most of the prescriptions available in the literature on how to deal with the problems of youth development are western in origin, non-African and therefore inappropriate for many African countries with third world characteristics. The only option, it appears open to the continent is to look inwards with the sole purpose of

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rediscovering the strengths that exist within the traditional African society as it relates to meeting the basic developmental needs of youth in Africa. In support of this Wangari Maathai, winner of the 2004 Nobel Peace Prize has this to say:

> *'The challenge for many parts of Africa that has been decultured is to rediscover their cultural heritages, and use them to both reconnect with the past and help direct them in their political, spiritual, economic and social development '* (Wangari, 2009, p.171).

A further discussion of the many problems facing the African youth in a changing world that is relevant to this study and which was discussed include unemployment, drug problems, drop-out syndrome and early pregnancy in girls and health problems.

2.4.1   Unemployment among African Youth

According to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFF) and the Action Health Incorporated (AHI) (2002), over three billion young people exist in the world today. The projections of young people in most African countries constitute about a third (30 %) of the total population. Projections of population growth in the 21st century indicate that the proportion of young people in relation to the overall population will continue to grow over the next twenty years. As a result, the African labour force is expected to increase and most of the new labour force entrants will be youth grappling with the problem of unemployment (UN, 1999). Chigunta (2002) says that one of the most serious social economic problems of Africa today is the issue of unemployment for young people, be they illiterates, school leavers and graduates. Mkandawire (2001) rightly observes that the unemployment problem has not only subjected the youth to economic crises but has also made them to go through 'a process of social dislocation'. It is obvious that the unemployment in Africa has

affected a broad spectrum of socio-economic groups, both the well and less educated, although it has particularly affected a substantial fraction of youth from the low-income backgrounds and those with limited education. Even in more industrially advanced South Africa, there is a very high rate of unemployment currently estimated at over 20% (Mkandawire, 2001, Chigunta, 2002). Both Mkandawire and Chigunta observe that millions of African youth cannot find jobs, many more are in jobs which do not fulfill their capabilities or ambitions. And so, most youth survive by relying on the goodwill of their parents, relatives or friends and neighbours. Olayinka and Omoegun (2002) and Adeniyi (2005) assert that some of these youth resort to begging either on the streets or by the side. And yet others are involved in illegal activities such as stealing, selling prohibited substances like marijuana and prostitution. Chigunta (2002) says that the unemployment status of these youth is further reflected in the almost visible phenomenon of idleness. They visit one another and engage in discussions instead of looking for what to do.

According to a United Nations Report (1999) and Chigunta (2002), in discussing the causes of youth unemployment in Africa, it is important to consider the demand and supply factors and how they interact to cause youth unemployment. It is now widely acknowledged that a major cause of the high youth unemployment in Africa is the current high population growth rate which has resulted in a relatively young population and a large proportion of youth in the population of the working wage. Therefore, there is the urgent need to introduce population issues into the school curriculum to intimate pupils, students and young adults on the need to control our

population as a result of the inherent adverse consequences of population explosion. This informs the inclusion of population issues in the curriculum of the general social education taught to the participating youth in this study.

Related to the rapid population growth rate is the issue of rural-urban migration. A key factor influencing youth unemployment in Africa is the high degree of geographical mobility of youth in form of rural-urban migration. A United Nations' report (1999) states that there was no unemployment in Africa before 1960. The same report estimates that by the year 2010, over 50% of youth in Africa will be residing in urban areas where job opportunities are limited to a few modern sector and informal sector establishments. In this respect, the same report recommends that programmes of integrated rural development and re-orientation of economic activity and social investments in rural areas be embarked upon to create an appropriate rural-urban economic balance.

Isichei (2001), World Bank (2002), Jiyeoba and Atanda (2004), Obanya (2006), Ahimie (2007) and Oghuvbu (2007) are of the opinion that there is what can be described as 'inappropriate' school curricula and lack of 'employable' skills taught in schools generally. It can be argued that Africa's education system does not just over supply the labour market with graduates and school leavers, but also does not produce the type of skills demanded in formal employment. This calls for the introduction of vocational skills and technical education in our schools. Serious attention has to be given to adequate training and any type of training given to these youth should be based on a careful assessment of available job opportunities and

opportunities for production that require skills and therefore create a demand for training. The various governments of the continent and policy makers should address the problem of youth unemployment by boosting labour demand on a sustainable basis through pursuit of appropriate economic policies that improve the conditions for enterprises to operate smoothly and hire people. Chigunta (2002) opines that the challenge of youth unemployment cannot be addressed only by providing white collar and factory jobs for them. They can be helped to look inwards to tap the great potentials they possess to create employment for themselves in any chosen trade, crafts, arts, and skills. Hence, skill acquisition is advocated for the youth in this study to prevent them from idleness and to provide them with a skill of their interest that can make them gainfully employed to achieve sustainable development.

Whatever the problem of unemployment is in Africa today, it is a known fact that in Africa before the 60s, there was no unemployment among the people. Therefore, Africans should draw from the strengths of the traditional society that kept every adult employed. In traditional Africa, the type of education offered was participatory and the learner was given an education that could prepare him for life.

2.4.2   Drug Problems among African Youth

According to Day (1992), many cities in Africa are trafficking routes for cannabis, heroine, cocaine and psychotropic substances. The spill over effect of this is the reported increase in the misuse of heroine and cocaine in many African countries (UNDCP, 1994). According to this report, the misuse of stimulants has been

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reported in Burkina Faso, Chad, Gabon, Ghana, Mali, Senegal and South Africa. Hypno-sedative, some depressants and anti-anxiety drugs or minor tranquillizers misuse are also reported in countries like Uganda, South Africa, Senegal, Nigeria, Mauritius, Mali, Kenya, Ghana and Chad. The trafficking in, and the use of 'Madras' (methaqualone), is a major concern in southern and eastern countries of Zambia, South Africa, Swaziland, Namibia, Mauritius, Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. The abuse of synthetic narcotic analgesics and the sniffing of organic substances are found commonly among street children in Kenya, Tanzania, Sudan, Somalia, Swaziland and Zambia (UNDCP, 1994).

It is clear from the foregoing information that drug abuse is widespread in Africa. Youth across the continent are becoming more and more drug conscious. According to Adegoke (2003), teenagers and young adults in many cities of Africa smoke marijuana openly. He grouped most common determinants of substance use into social variables, personal variables and peer group variables. With regards to social variables, he feels that youth are drawn into the use of drugs by family and societal environments. A young person whose family includes an adult who uses drugs and who has no religious affiliation are at high risk for drug use. The behavioural modeling by this adult plays a significant role in a young person's experimentation with drugs. Equally, parents who do not show their children love and care can inadvertently encourage drug use as an escape from the environment. Also, he opines that poor parent-child communication can put youth at risk for drug use and abuse. Socially, the influence of peers can encourage young persons into drug use. Drug use can also be encouraged by commercial media like magazines,

radio, television, newspapers and the movie industry which presents smoking and various images of substances as appropriate solutions to any of life's problems.

In looking at personal factors, Adegoke (2003) says that there are some young persons who are unable to cope effectively with pressure associated with normal development. At times, many of these young adults get to a breaking point where they experience a threshold of emotional pain beyond which their coping skills can handle. The interaction of emotional pain and inability to cope with stresses can push youngsters to use drugs for relief. Some youth merely experiment with drugs while others experience drugs as a legitimate means to alleviate both internal problems such as frustration, stress, depression, feeling of low-esteem and external problems such as poor school achievement, family problems and evidence. Other personal reasons why young persons get into drugs, according to Moronkola (2008), include their desire to be independent of their parents. She says that rebellion and tolerance for deviance are also associated with drug use. This may predispose them to joining gangs and cults. Low interpersonal trust is also a reason. She concludes that a youth whose social environment is unrewarding or threatening may seek to withdraw from that environment by sustained drug use or dependence.

Talking about peer group influence, Alubo (2000), Osarenren (2005) and Oni (2005) recognize the strong effects of peer group pressures on youngsters. Young people are very responsive to peer group comments as measures of self-worth and self-esteem. The peer group represents the transfer channel for transition from childhood to adulthood. Beauvais et al (1996), in his Peer Cluster Theory and

Moronkola (2008) reveal that drug use or dependence is nearly always linked to peer-relationships.

The effects of drug abuse on youth can be devastating for them and their families. Apart from the physical effect of many ugly spots on the body for those who use needles, some may experience weight loss, incoherent speeches, constant mood changes, violence and hostility in the home, telling of lies, financial dependence and loss of job opportunities among others (Edem, 1999). To prevent or help to decrease the drug problem in Africa, parents should strive to remain closely involved in the lives of their youth. Adeniyi (2005) asserts that Young people are likely to flourish when they have a family life that is characterized by warmth, sustained parental interest in their lives. Longe (2003) advises that youngsters should be given accurate information about drugs. They should be made to understand the inherent dangers of drug abuse and dependence as well as the legal consequences of getting caught with hard drugs. Parents, adults and guardians should set good examples by limiting their use of alcohol and medications. If they are to take drugs for medical problems, they should explain this clearly to youngsters around them. At every opportunity, Osarenren (2005) counsels that parents should build the youth's self-esteem, praise their accomplishments and refrain from frequent criticism. Their friends should be scrutinized, to make sure they are not involved in drugs. There is also the need for schools to correctly inform students on the facts about the danger in drug use and dependence. Moronkola (2008) advises that peer-base programmes should be introduced into schools as a way of preventing drug use and abuse among students and peer-based social programmes should be introduced in neighbourhoods

as a way of preventing drug use, abuse and pushing among young people. The peer intervention could be as simple as organizing the youth in neighbourhood campaigns. It could be in form of organizing them into clubs and societies focusing on the development of refusal and decision making skills among the peers with the cluster. This can be a veritable means of advocating out of school approaches which would be very beneficial to the peer cluster.

2.4.3   Dropout Syndrome

Dropouts are those who leave school before graduation and they never go back to complete such programmes. Considerable evidence abound that those who drop out of school possess a number of characteristics (Taiwo, 1968; Obe, 1980, 1984; Ogionwo, 1978 and Adegoke, 2003). These scholars and authors identify these characteristics to include, lack of motivation in class work; likely problems with school authorities, police or both; habitual late-coming to school, likely family problems and drug or alcohol problems; poor family background. According to Adegoke, over the past thirty years, dropouts have consistently reported that their main reasons for leaving school before graduation are: a dislike for school because school is boring and not relevant to their needs; low academic achievement and poor grades; poverty, a desire to work full time, a need for money and not belonging, a sense that nobody cares. All of these reasons are closely linked to self-concept and self-esteem. According to Parajes (2000) self-concept is a learned

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behaviour. People are not born hating themselves and they are not born feeling good about themselves. Everyone's self-concept is learned. Therefore, developing the right self-concept can also be learned through proper socialization. Helping young people to have confidence in themselves will go a long way in making them realize their potentials.

The consequences of dropping out of school are grave on the individual as well as very serious economic and social repercussions for the larger society. They place themselves at an economic disadvantage where they usually earn far less than their counterparts who are able to complete their education. Their unemployment and under employment rates are usually very high. They are dissatisfied with themselves, the environment and with the lack of opportunity associated with lower occupational aspirations among young people. There is also this idea of dropouts begetting dropouts (Dropout's Perspective, 1998). They are a vulnerable group in society and can be easy prey to violence as a result of frustration. To break this cycle of dropouts, the self-concept and self-esteem can be positively developed through social learning skills of role modelling, imitations and verbal persuasion.

2.4.4   Early Pregnancy

Theories of adolescent and youth development initiated by Hall (1904) cited in Bamgboye (2004) give sexuality a central place in negotiating the transition from childhood to adulthood. Yet in modern Africa, most parents, adults and guardians tend to shy away from discussions on sex and properly informing youngsters on sexuality (Abe, 1996). Moore & Rosenthal (1993), Adegoke (2003) and Falaye

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(2008) emphasize that it is important for young people to be able to integrate their sexual feelings, needs and desires into a coherent and positive self-identity which contain, as one aspect, a sexual self. When this is not done and the youth becomes sexually active, pregnancy is the end-result. They also observe that the rate of pregnancy among African young females is on the increase and this is capable to causing major health and social problems. A number of factors have been advanced for the high incidence of early pregnancy in Africa. They include: early onset of menarche among female adolescents (Fakeye and Adegoke, 1994; Imobekhai 1986); early initiation of sexual activity; early marriage; economic insecurity; low and ineffective use of contraception, and deterioration of traditional African values (Adedoyin and Adegoke, 1995).

Gyebi-Garbrah (1988), Adegoke (2003), Sha and Ahaman (2004) and Moronkola (2008) draw attention to the health related implications as well as grave social and economic consequences of early pregnancy. According to them, early pregnancy and childbirth restrict future opportunities for social and economic advancement. The desire to remain in school may lead many to procure illegal abortions before their pregnancies are detected. Some of these young females die from the abortions while others develop complications that may deny them the joy of motherhood in future. To Sha and Ahaman (2004), early childbearing is strongly associated with the likelihood of continuing in life-long poverty. The young mother is likely to be over burdened, especially when she is unwedded and the child is unwanted. The child is likely to suffer from malnutrition, infections, parasites and lack of learning, the physical and intellectual development of such a child will probably be retarded.

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Early pregnancy increases the risk that this pattern will be repeated in the next generation (Adegoke, 2003). There are serious health related implications in early pregnancy. Gyepi-Garbrah (1985) identifies the medical risks associated with early pregnancy to include anemia, bleeding, toxemia, prolonged and difficult labour. Urinary and bowel complications, resulting in Virginal Vistula Fistula (VVF), a uterine dysfunction, and cephalopelvic disproportion. According to Adegoke (2003) and Moronkola (2008), early pregnancy poses special health risks not only for the mother but also for the child. Children born to very young mothers, suffer higher rates of mortality than those of older mothers. They also have higher rates of premature birth and low birth weight. These conditions contribute to long term mental and physical disabilities.

From the foregoing, it is evident, that children born from early pregnancies are likely to grow and develop in very harsh conditions and may be maladjusted in later life. Early pregnancy begets children who will bear children early. According to Moronkola (2008), the cycle of low socio-economic status, absence of a father, poor school performance, dropping out of school and family difficulties will definitely result in the production of children who will develop anti-social behaviours. To prevent early pregnancy, reproductive health education should be included in school curriculum. This will prevent inaccurate information about sex getting to young persons, such as is received from friends, magazines and the mass media. Adegoke (2003) notes that one of the variables associated with early pregnancy is the communication and closeness in a mother-daughter relationship. A close mother-

daughter relationship encourages young females to turn to their mothers instead of others for guidance in sex, sexual issues and sexual feelings and behaviour.

The disadvantages of teenage motherhood are many and well documented. According to Gyebi-Garbrah (1988), Adegoke (2003), Sha and Ahaman (2004) and Moronkola (2008), they range from concerns about health outcomes, interpersonal and relationship difficulties, interruptions to the normative life pattern to economic consequences. Early parenthood may prove to be a difficult and disruptive choice resulting in serious and permanent limitations to life's opportunities. Adegoke (2003) opines that in spite of the very serious hurdles that early pregnancy portends, the young parents are likely to realize their ambitions and plans in life, if they are provided with social support.

2.4.5 Health Problems among African Youth

World Health Organization (1998) states that young persons have traditionally been neglected as a target group and subsumed under the promotion of family, women's child welfare and health. This has at least partially been because the youth were seen as a relatively healthy age group, one that did not have a heavy 'burden of diseases', as compared with young infants and older adults. However, the same WHO (1998) report states that there is now an increasing recognition that they have special health related vulnerabilities. Also, young people are now being seen as 'gateways to health' because behavioural patterns acquired during this period tend to last throughout adult life and roughly 70 % of premature deaths among adults are due to behaviours initiated when young.

Bamgboye (2004) and Osarenern (2005) affirm that the target age group of youth is a period of transition and rapid changes in all its ramifications in the young individual. Incidentally, more often than not, youth are ill-prepared for these sudden changes which are physiological, emotional, physical, social and spiritual in nature. The ill-preparation for the sudden changes which youth go through at this period of their lives has health consequences and implications for them. These consequences range from problems associated with sex and sexuality through peer group pressure. According to Alubo (2000) youth sexuality and reproductive health problems such as unintended pregnancy, maternal mortality and sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS and drugs abuse are important contemporary concerns, on which young people should be educated.

Falaye (2008) opines that one of the ways in which young people transmit from childhood to adulthood is through sexual activity. Yet, the display of sexual behaviours and developmental characteristics can place them at risk of HIV infections which may later lead to full blown AIDS. Unprotected sexual activity can also lead to unwanted pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). The HIV/AIDS epidemic is not only the most important public health problem affecting large parts of Sub-Saharan Africa but also an unprecedented threat to the region's development. According to Adegoke (2003), irresponsible, premature and risky sexual contact can have serious consequences on the youth than pregnancy. Gyebi-Garbrah (1988) draws attention to the fact that STDs have extremely serious health consequences for sexually active young people. He mentions that Chlamydia, an

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infection of the vagina or urinary tract, gonorrhea, genital warts, herpes and syphilis are common STDs among youngsters who are sexually active. The health consequences of these STDs can be irreversible and some like (herpes and AIDS) are incurable. Therefore, there is an urgent need for reproductive health education for young people who are in school and out of school. Alubo (2000), Adegoke (2003) and (Agusiobo, 2005) have advocated the education of young people on important contemporary issues of youth sexuality and reproductive health problems such as unintended pregnancy, maternal mortality and sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS and drugs abuse. Hence sexually transmitted diseases especially HIV/AIDS was part of the social education given to the youth in this study.

2.5   Youth Problems in Nigeria and the Causes of Restiveness among the Niger Delta youth.

Youth in contemporary Nigeria face daunting problems that have hindered them from contributing to nation building. Among these problems which are relevant to this study and are discussed in this sub-heading include: the crises in the Nigerian value system, the breaking down of the extended family system, drug related problems, dropping out of school and criminal behaviours, unemployment, poverty, improper criminal justice system and lack of conflict resolution strategy.

2.5.1   Crises in the Nigerian Value System

Ejiogu cited in National Orientation agency (Nigeria)/NTA (2006)**;** Oji (2007) and Omo-Ojugo, Ibafidon and Otote (2009) all agree that Nigeria is experiencing value

crises. According to Oji (2007), a country's values and attitudes serve as a moral compass. These values are a synthesis of the beliefs which are taken seriously and cherished and come about as a result of several years of development, analysis, trials and errors. He enthuses:

> *'We all know that there was a time when in order to be successful, one had to exert oneself through hard work and discipline. Today, people who come by cheap money by crook or hook are given exalted positions in our communities and country and honoured as knights in the church' (Oji*, 2007, p. 31).

He concludes that Nigeria really needed to re-examine its values and attitudes because without an appropriate moral compass, a country is doomed. A reflection on Nigeria before now will throw more light into the level of decadence the country has sunk to as a result of upholding negative moral values.

Nigeria has been known before the 1970s to have a culture of discipline, dedication, honesty, integrity, nobility, honour, hard-work, respect for elders and constituted authority, tolerance, accommodation, community spirit and respect for one another among many others. All these distinctive, non-material and unwritten aspects of our culture are the hallmark of the traditional Nigerian society. These social core values earned Nigeria the respect of the international community and her people were treated with respect, dignity and honour. However, the past three decades or so have witnessed an unprecedented devastation of the value system of the nation. There is the belief among researchers (Wirth, 1988; Aina, 1993 and Blair and Davis, 1994) that one major negative attributes of modernization and globalization is the loss of these traits of discipline, honesty and respect for both the individual and the common good of the society. The Nigeria case is further compounded by

the high level of corruption inflicted on the society through over twenty years of military rule. It is a known fact that the economy was badly managed and normal standards that exhibit good governance and high moral grounds were obliterated, while anti-social behaviours became very pervasive. The result of these is that the economy was almost destroyed, politics was driven by personal sentiments, issues and ideas and social condition of the people deteriorated as acts of intolerance and hatred took over the people. Also, merit has given way to mediocrity, hard-work to intolerance, and respect for elders to arrogance and honesty to get rich-quick syndrome. There is indeed a near breakdown in the moral fabric of the society, including the foundation of family values. How else can one explain the behaviour of a mother or father who gives money to his/her child to procure marks and a mother who pushes her daughter out to prostitute for money.

The foregoing is in consonance with Ejiogu's views when he espouses that Nigeria is still today in a state of moral inversion typified by emptiness, meaninglessness, anomie, crass materialism, unbridled greed and unmitigated insincerity. The Nigerians of today, do not value human lives. They rarely wink an eye at the sight of a dead body on the highway. Because her citizens do not generally value hard work, workers can go on strikes for months. Equally, Nigeria probably has the largest number of public holidays in Africa. Armed robbers, hired assassins, drug and human traffickers are on the increase as well as man's inhumanity to man, loss of human dignity and human sympathy now rule the civil society. He asserts that most Nigerians extol wealth, no matter how it is acquired or appropriated, such that an average secondary school student, while in school, is busy dreaming of the type

of car he/she ought to be riding to school, rather than plan how to study hard for his/her promotion examination. To these youngsters, 'Expo' will take care of their examination.

To Ejiogu, Nigeria is perhaps the only country where illiterates buy honorary doctorate degrees. This is because they just must be called Doctor (Dr.) this or Chief (Dr.) that! Most of our people have become title seekers rather than honest achievers. Even religion has become a major weapon by which the elites of our society manipulate our masses. Some churches preach nothing but miracles and prosperity, not hard work, nor meekness and humility. Parents have abandoned their divine responsibility of training their children in the fear of God. Hence there are student cultists, rapists and dupes. We hear of students killing one another, abducting and beating up their lecturers, principals or even Vice Chancellors, he observes.

One cannot agree less with Ejiogu and Oji (2007) on the need for the Nigerian nation to completely refine and revert to the old reward system so as to encourage hard work and productivity instead of paying workers on paper qualifications and mere longevity on the job. According to Omo-Ojugo et al (2009) real hard work must be adequately rewarded. Parents should be alive to their responsibility of bringing up their children in the fear of God and respect, love for their teachers, uncles and aunties and elders. Parents and elders should lead by example so as not to confuse the youth in their behaviours. The National Education Research and Development Council and Ministries of Education, should as a matter of urgency

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revisit our Primary and Secondary School Curriculum with a view to making it positive value oriented in content. Nigeria should go back to the old system in which personal hygiene, folk lore and moral education featured in primary school curriculum. School libraries must be stocked with biographies and autobiographies of great men and women from all over the world. Each student should be made to present a summary of the ones he/she read at the end of each term including the lesson(s) he/she had learned. Such summary should be assessed and graded by the teacher as part of the continuous assessment. Before one knows it, each pupil could have adopted a role model who is quite essential in character formation and as recommended by Bandura's social learning theory.

Oji (2007) also recommends that the Nigerian adolescents and youth should be taught the culture of love, tolerance, hard work, piety, humility and modesty. We had these values in abundance before we dropped them for values of extreme materialism, violence, total disregard for human life and the resultant culture of death. The mindset of the youth should be redirected to noble things and values through social education and persuasion. In the light of this, the inclusion of the general social education in the curriculum of the youth of this study cannot be over-emphasized.

2.5.2   Breaking Down of the Extended Family System

The African way of life is well known for its strong communal spirit with strong kinship ties that knit the society together. There is the extended family bond well padded with support systems for all members. With colonialism and contact with the Western World and all its attendant pressures, the African society has undergone

rapid changes. These changes have affected the fabric of the African society adversely. Aina (1993) and Alamieyesigha (2005) agree that urbanization and modernity compelling the drift of people to cities in search of work, leaving behind their extended families and living among strangers have affected the African cohesive society. The African social cohesion has loosened as the traditional family system has broken down. Broken down with it, is the traditional support network that accompanied it. The resultant effect is the promotion of individualism over social solidarity, anarchy, disorder and amoral society. Wirth cited by Albert (1994) examines the foundation of urbanization and describes it as a society based on the affirmation of individual difference rather than social harmony. Blair and Davis (1994) also conceive the urban crisis as being a crisis of human identity. They say:
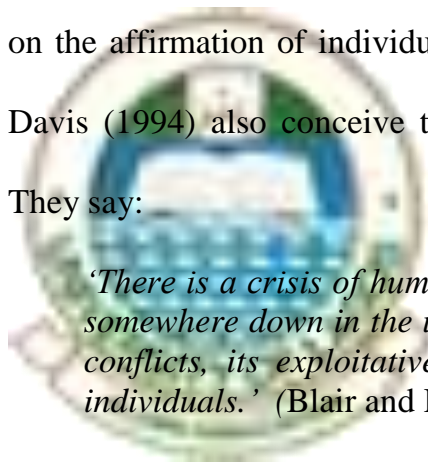
> *'There is a crisis of human identity in cities and the illness lies somewhere down in the urbanized society itself, inside its value conflicts, its exploitative social institutions and its alienated individuals.' (*Blair and Davis, 1994, p. 302).

According to Wirth, the urban sphere encourages the spirit of individualism at the expense of social solidarity. The individual gains his autonomy and freedom in the urban sphere but loses the spontaneous self-expression, the morale and the sense of participation that comes with living in an integrated society.

It is ironical that modernity being celebrated as the source of human progress and development is also the origin of the present social despair and problems. One major fall-out of modernity and urban crisis is the neglect of parental roles in cities. These days many women go out to work, either to pursue a career or simply to

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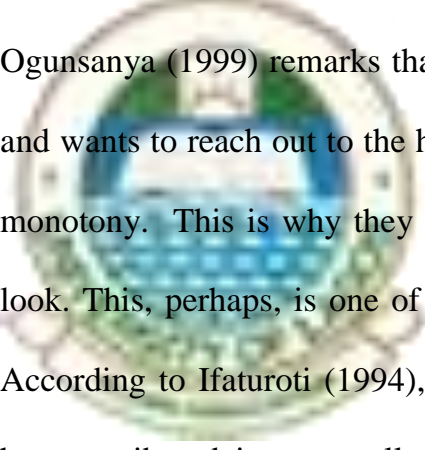
complement the family income. There is also the growing number of single parents struggling to bring-up their children. Therefore, parents have to rely on daycare centers or paid house helps of questionable quality. Some of these house helps are children who themselves need care. Oloko (2003) discovers that a growing number of children are sent out to work while their parents also work. Others are simply left alone to care for themselves, leaving them particularly vulnerable to crime, either as victims or perpetrators. She adds that most parents live children and young people alone all day without parental or adult guidance because their parents and guardians are at work. The young persons are exposed to violent films that are uncensored. Researchers like Albert (1994), Owens-Ibie (1994) and Bandura (1977, 1986) have established the fact that there is a positive correlation between children who watch violent film and actual carrying out of violence by them. Aina (1993) speaks of youngsters who are hooked to the internet for over twenty hours a day without guidance from adults. There is the possibility that they could be watching pornographic films or learning how to defraud on the internet. Although televisions, computers and the internet are all technology meant for development of the human society, if their use by children and youth is not monitored, they could learn anti-social behaviours, manifested in restiveness and violence. According to Osarenren (2005), the home is the cradle of character formation and for children to be denied home training, parental love and care, is to expose them to psychological trauma and maladjustment. These maladjusted children grow up to be youth who may be involved in anti-social behaviour like robbery, stealing, kidnapping, drug abuse and trafficking and the like which constitute the subject matter of this study.
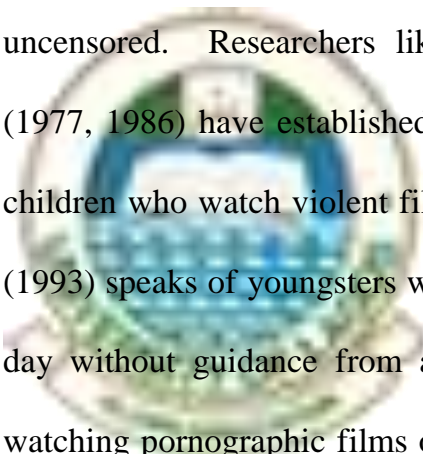
The solution to the prevailing urban crisis can be attained if there is the acknowledgment that Africa and by extension Nigeria and the Niger Delta in particular need to return to the basics and to recapture its old values, particularly the ideal of social solidarity to attain a new moral foundation. This moral foundation, according to Owolabi (1994) should be formulated on the universal truth that man can only live a happy and good life when he relates amicably with others in the society.

2.5.3   Drug Related Problems, Dropping Out of School, Delinquency and Criminal Behaviour among Nigerian Youth

Ogunsanya (1999) remarks that every youth, is presumed to be filled with idealism and wants to reach out to the heights. To him, no youth is ever satisfied with life of monotony. This is why they search for what will stimulate life and give it a new look. This, perhaps, is one of the general reasons for youth involvement in drugs. According to Ifaturoti (1994), there is the pervading culture of drug abuse, which has contributed in no small way to the increase of cult related violence among youth. Hard drugs such as cocaine, heroine and Indian hemp are often found in possession of cult members and armed robbers. Initiation ceremonies, according to Ifarturoti, into secret cults are frequently initiation into hard drugs. Violent clashes between rival fraternity groups often occur under the influence of alcohol and other mind disturbing drugs. These drugs alter the state of the users' mind and do predispose them to violence, he concludes.

Adejunmobi (1992) and Odejide (1993) discuss the prevalence of drug use among youth. Odejide's study shows that 2.7 percent had used marijuana, one in five

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drank alcohol regularly, one in four smoked and one in two used valium/librium regularly. They both conclude that such young users graduate to cocaine and heroine later in life. These youth may also grow up becoming serious menace to their neighbourhood and the society at large. They discover that both males and females were involved in drug abuse although more males were drug users than the females. In agreement with these findings, Moronkola and Adeniran (2006), in discussing the prevalence of drug abuse among youth, conclude that youth who use drugs are a serious threat to their neighbours and the society at large.

Ibe (1992) and Moronkola (2008) describe the effect of marijuana as a hallucinogen. It makes one feel high and may become mildly uninhabited with an increasing sense of self confidence. It is the power-behind the gun (Ibe, 1992). Adelekan (1989) testifies to the pitiable sight of persons who have taken depressants with a tranquilizing drug. They vegetate until they are relieved of the influence of the poly-substance. It brings shame to them and their families. According to Edem (1999), an indication that a person is a drug user is the many spots of needle on his body. Another indication is the issues of weight loss and exhibition of constant mood changes. Another outcome is economic dependence. A situation where money is to be got at all cost, stealing, robbery and violence are often involved. Morgan (1979) and Ibe (1992) describe the damaging effects of hard drugs to include the vision of the drug user being impaired under the influence of perception changing drug and the body particularly the hands may become numb. Cocaine which is used as a local anesthetic can cause the wearing away of the nose tissues and even the total collapse of the entire nostril arising from constant sniffing.

Apart from drug abuse, there is a segment of youth who is involved in drug trafficking.
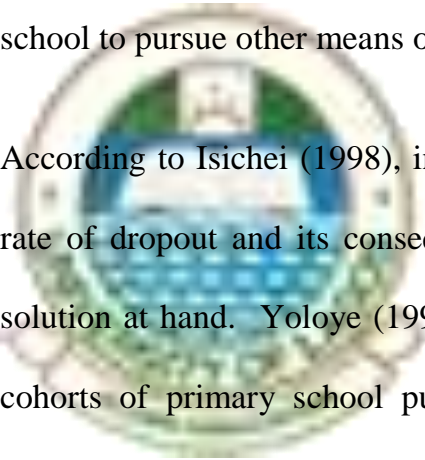
There is no accurate statistics to show the number of youth involved in drug trafficking. This is because not all of them are caught but evidence abounds of Nigeria youngsters caught in the act. During the Buhari/Idiagbon regime, youngsters Owho and Ogendegbe were caught with cocaine and executed in a retrospective judgment. Recently, a Yoruba actress and a Virgin Nigeria Airlines cabin crew were caught with cocaine at the Murtala Mohammed International Airport. The motive behind drug trafficking is easy acquired wealth and the 'get rich quick' syndrome. A large body of research (Wolk and Brandon, 1977; Adegoke 2003 and Moronkola, 2008) suggest that poor parent-child relationships with parents providing limited or poor supervision, attention and love could contribute to runaway youth, crime, violence and drug abuse.

Therefore, drug abuse and trafficking as part of the general social education taught to the youth in this study is to help them to recognize the evil of hard drugs and trafficking and to avoid getting involved. They were encouraged, persuaded and aided to transform Nigeria to a loveable, appreciable and revered nation. They were persuaded to do away with bad company. Be submissive to parents so as to gain their blessings from God as promised in the Holy Bible and the Holy Qu'ran.

2.5.4   Dropping Out of School

Dropping out of school, according to Ilogu (1996) is a phenomenon whereby a pupil or student on account of behavioural problems stop going to school before

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graduation and he does not enter another school to complete his education. To Ilogu, dropping out of school is a world-wide problem. It occurs in both developed and developing nations of the world. Ogionwo (1978) and Obe (1980, 1984) are among some Nigerians who have carried out research work on drop-out syndrome. Ogionwo (1978) worked with some students in Port-Harcourt. He found out that secondary school dropouts had either very high or very low aspirations for social mobility. Three decades after, this finding appears still valid. This is because from observation, the youth of the Niger Delta exhibit either very high or very low aspiration for social mobility. This has in turn made most of them to dropout of school to pursue other means of achieving their aspirations.

According to Isichei (1998), in Nigeria, different studies reveal the miserable high rate of dropout and its consequences on economic growth of the nation with no solution at hand. Yoloye (1994) research shows that the total dropout rate of five cohorts of primary school pupils between 1980 – 1992 ranges from 42.2% to 51.6%. The range getting to 51.6% in 1992 corresponds with Taiwo's finding of 1968. That dropout tends to decrease from primary one to three and then increases to primary five. He went on to show gender differences in dropout, suggesting that it is higher among girls than boys. This also confirms World Bank's (1980) findings that reveal that in the African Continent, dropout rates are particularly high in poorer countries and especially for lower income groups, girls and those in rural areas.

Oloko (1990) working on street trading and working children shows a high rate dropout among those who admitted that they dropped out of school. Those who dropped out to trade constituted 34.7% while working children were 41.7% primary education while 23% had dropped out of secondary education. Even for youth who are out of school, the dropout rate is very high. According to Oloko (1994), in a commissioned study on 'Area Boy/Girls Syndrome' in Lagos State reveals a high rate of dropout among them. Among those who had primary education more than two-thirds dropped out of school before completion and more than half of those who had secondary education. The Committee headed by Taiwo (1968) to review the educational system of the former Western Region of Nigeria reported that about 52% of every primary school generation dropped out of school before getting to primary four. If this finding was true of an almost no tuition paying primary school, the situation would have been worse in a fee paying secondary and tertiary institutions.

Obe's (1984) research finds out that teachers and dropouts agree on a few causes of dropping out. The dropouts considered vocational future, school phobia and lack of motivation as more serious causes of dropping out of school than other reasons. On the reasons for dropping out of school at the primary and secondary school levels, 40.5% dropped out for financial reasons, another 40% dropped on their own (delinquency level). The remaining 19.5% dropped out either for health reasons, parent's withdrawal (poverty level) or poor academic performance (Oloko, 1994).

Oloko's study also reveals the educational ambition of the 'area boys'. 15.5% of them no longer had the ambition to return to school. 8.3% males and 32.1% females want to complete their primary education and secondary education respectively. And the most important revelation was that as high as 43.1% of the 'area boys' who dropped out of school were desirous of tertiary education. In the study, Oloko notes that the recruiting bureaucratic mechanism of age specification for admission, especially for the primary and secondary levels will prevent these youth desirous of a 'second chance' the golden opportunity.

The over-age concept for admission into the primary and secondary levels of education makes them lack the requisite qualification for tertiary education too. To overcome this problem, the NPE, (2004) made provision for non-formal adult education for adults and youth who are out of school to be able to get primary and secondary education as well as university education through the Open and Distance Learning. This research work also advocates skills acquisition with general social education and probably with basic literacy for youth who are out of school. In this kind of education, admission is not by age, the curriculum is participatory for the learner and he can discover more about himself and environment to make him more adaptive to his situation. This also points to Illich's argument for the disestablishment of the modern school system with the removal of age specification recruitment policy, compulsory attendance and structural curriculum for all at all levels (Isichei 1998:238). Durkheim (1857 – 1917) the founding father of sociology also believes that there is no ideal form of education for all men indiscriminately but various forms of education for different groups of people in the society.
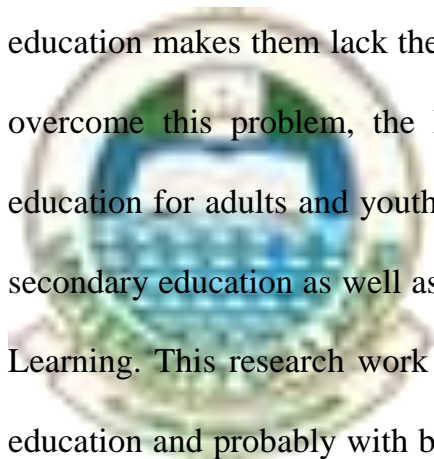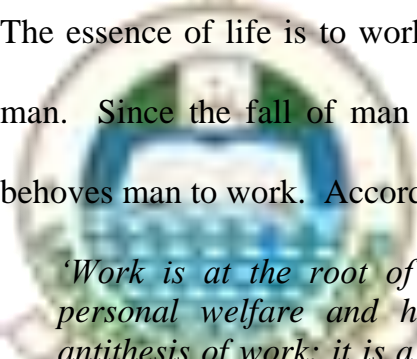
According to Obe (1984), Illogu (1976) and Oloko (1994) there are many reasons why students dropout of school. These range from health reasons through poor academic performances, fear of school and teachers to poverty and delinquency. For whatever reasons, young people dropout of school, they should be encouraged to learn a skill or trade in order to be useful to themselves, family and society. This informs the use of skill acquisition to solve the problem of unemployment for youth in this study who are out of school in addition to a general social education.

2.5.5 Unemployment

The essence of life is to work. Work is one of the most visible characteristics of man. Since the fall of man in the Garden of Eden and his subsequent curse, it behoves man to work. According to Yesufu (2003),

> *'Work is at the root of life's sustenance, national prosperity, personal welfare and human dignity. Unemployment is the antithesis of work; it is a hydra-headed monster. A high level or rising rate of unemployment is a cancerous ebola that drains the life-blood of the economy. Unemployment is a human curse'* *(Yesufu, 2003, p. 235 – 236).*

Like Yesufu, Isichei (1998) views unemployment as 'nothing but misery, frustration and high rate of crime among young graduates. Akerele (1977) appeared to agree with Illich (1971) that unemployment is 'the sad idleness of a person for who does not know how to act'. He defines unemployment as 'a situation which arises when an employable individual is actively seeking work but is not able to find one'. Related to unemployment is under-employment and what literature refers to a 'working poor' people (Ahimie, 2007). She makes a distinction between under-employment and the 'working poor' by describing them. To her, under-employment

refers to those working less than they would like to work or being paid less than they deserve. It is a condition that exists when there are people who are able to work, wishing to work but fail to obtain suitable employment, but instead of unemployment accept employment for bare means of sustenance. The 'working poor' are those people who are working and possibly very hard and strenuously but whose employment is not productive in the sense of earning an income which is up to a modest minimum. The 'working poor' with low productivity and high degree of under-employment have come to be regarded as constituting a major part of the employment and social problems. Ahimie concludes that the underemployed and the working poor are likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs because of lack of self-actualization from their work. This will in turn lead to frustrations and maladjustment that can cause anti-social behaviours dangerous to the peace and well-being of society.

That unemployment in Nigeria is on the increase is no longer news. There exists a large source of literature on the phenomenal increase in unemployment levels. Maier (2000) highlights the scale of this problem when he writes:

> *'The turn of the century met approximately 60 million youth of about the age of 18 seething with frustration over lack of academic and job opportunities that just three decades before appeared to be within reach of their parents' (Maier, 2000, p.12).*

The National Directorate of Employment (NDE) in 2002 after a five day registration of the jobless recorded two million people. The survey reveals that higher education graduates constitute 20 percent of the total, while primary and post primary school leavers formed 63 percent. Even more staggering is the 2000

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National Manpower Board Report which reveals a whopping 83.3 percent of unemployed Nigerians belonging to the 15 – 33 age brackets. This confirms Oguntuashe's assertion (cited in Isichei , 2001) that it is on record that unemployment has reached 80 percent of graduate population. According to Mmereole (1990), in the midst of the unemployment problem, primary and secondary school leavers as well as graduate population from the country's educational system continues to pour and swell the pool of the unemployed. Besides this huge pool of unemployed people is the wave of retrenchment and early retirement that has been and is still being experienced in the country as a result of bad economic melt-down. Isichei (1998), Peretomode (2002), Imobighie (2002) and Ahimie (2007) all agree that arising from this very high pool of unemployed able-bodied young men, is a general knowledge in Nigeria among social scientists, educationists, philosophers, theologians and economists that the major cause of incessant acts of violence among Nigerian youth is unemployment, be it religious or politically-oriented violence.   Unemployed youth forms the fertile recruiting grounds for all forms of violence. This study is a fall-out of this menace of unemployment among youth who are out of school and out of job. This study seeks skill acquisition and a general social education for these youngsters as a means of keeping them gainfully engaged and out of trouble and mischief.

According to Hodges (2001) and Ahimie (2007), the cost of unemployment is considerable. Its cost can be measured by economic and material loss or by human suffering and wasted skills. There is the loss of income that could accrue to the Gross Domestic Product. The effect on the children of the unemployed is simply

distressing. Their health, security, educational opportunities and entire future are endangered. In many families, the stress of unemployment tends to separate rather than to mold the family into a smoother functioning unit. In most cases, the family is never able to recover to the detriment of themselves and the community.

According to Edem (2005), there is a relationship between the educational system and the employment system of any society. Education through schooling is supposed to prepare its graduates for the world of work. He observes that the relationship between education and work in Nigeria has begun to be perceived in more dynamic way. The frustrating conditions of young graduates of primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions, not finding jobs to meet their aspirations have been blamed on the failure of the 6-3-3-4 system of education. Oyerinde cited in Ahimie (2007) identifies the failure of the 6-3-3-4 system as poor preparation of Nigerian teachers, their low morale as a result of the poor pay, over-crowded classrooms, over-loaded curricula, lack of workshop, lack of laboratory and classroom facilities, lack of institutional materials, poor attitude of students to studies, overloaded examination syllabuses, all of which combine to lower competency of school leavers. Therefore, Ivowi (1998), Hodges (2001) and Obayan (2003) have strongly and vigorously called for the redesigning of the school curriculum in Nigeria.

According to Ahimie (2007), the problems of unemployment and under employment have emanated from the incompatibility between the accelerated increase in population and therefore, the labour force on the one hand and the

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inadequate growth of productive employment opportunities on the other hand. As such over-population is a vital issue in the discussion of unemployment. The inclusion of population education in the general social education given to the participants of this research work cannot be over-emphasized when over-population is viewed against unemployment problems.

In traditional African societies, including Nigeria, unemployment in the sense we know it today was absent. This is because the knowledge and skills acquired were adequate preparations for life-long occupation, self-employment or community service. Moreover, as the aims, methods and content of traditional education were intricately interwoven and were not dichotomized into structured compartments as in modern education. This researcher agrees with Isichei (1998) that the problem of unemployment that overwhelms the Nigerian economy today would not have been the case, had the country not abandoned traditional education for modern education. One would have expected a more, balanced approach of 'complementality' rather than total abandonment of the traditional education.

2.5.6   Poverty

Poverty is at the heart of violence among young people, be it in urban or rural areas of Nigeria. Because poverty lacks a common definition and methodology for measuring it, it has been differently defined in material terms. For Reading (1977), poverty refers to individual or family insufficiency of assets, income and public utilities, a condition of having an income in the lowest over-fifth of the income distribution or a condition of having an income incompatible with a society's national objectives. According to Hodges (2001), in measuring poverty says it is a

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situation where an individual lives on less than a dollar a day. In the broader sense, poverty involves lack of clean drinking water and sanitation, lack of adequate shelter, hunger in a diet lacking proteins and vitamins, illiteracy, early death (before 40 years) or death from curable and preventable diseases and exclusion from economic or political activities. In demographic terms, the population living in less than a dollar a day is mostly rural, where they eek out a living by subsistent farming. Urban poverty arises by migration of rural population into cities where they provide unskilled labour for little pay and are petty traders and live in areas where there are no basic infrastructure, shelter, schools, water, electricity, sanitation and hospitals. It is estimated that about 57 percent of Nigerians live on the poverty line (WHO, 2008).

Alamieyesigha (2005) observes that an educated youngster from a poor family who wants to go into business faces many hurdles. He cannot get a loan because he has neither the security nor the 'connections'. He cannot have a job because apart from not meeting "Federal character requirements", he does not, again, have the right connections. He notes that young girls often see prostitution as a way out of poverty, making them vulnerable to sexually transmitted diseases. The most serious of these is HIV/AIDS which has now reached endemic proportions in Nigeria, with all its destructive consequences. In support of this opinion, Falaye (2008) identifies poverty as the major socio-economic factor that pre-disposes youth to engage in premarital sexual activities and this exposes them to STDs including HIV/AIDS. According to Youth Against Aids and Prostitution (YAAP) a Non Governmental Organization (NGO) cited by Alamieyesigha (2005), girls are routinely lured into

the trade of prostitution. There are well organized criminal networks which also 'export' many of the girls to Italy and other European countries, where they become virtual sex slaves, not to mention drug abuse and mental break down.

Hodges (2001) asserts that there is a relationship between poverty and education. Poverty prevents many families from enrolling all or some of their children in school or forces them to withdraw their children prematurely from school. This is either because of the cost of education or the need to have the children to work as street hawkers, economic house helps and business apprentices to help with the house upkeep. Although children have always worked in the Nigerian society since the end of the oil boom in the late 1970s, millions of children, Oloko (2003) asserts have been driven into all types of labour which are exploitative and hazardous to their welfare and development. Poverty also makes parents to marry out their young girls. This practice is another setback of learning achievement in girls. In South East Nigeria, poverty also forces pupils and students out of school to pursue economic pursuits (Okeke, Okwo and Oreh, 1996).

In finding solutions to the problems of poverty as they affect education, Hodges (2001) recommends a broad-base economic development that is capable of generating employment and higher standard of living will make the desired impact on the opportunity cost of the children's time by poor families. Also, that attention should be given within the framework of the UBE, to find ways of reducing the direct costs of school attendance such as uniforms, transport and textbooks. As for early marriage of girls, there should be sustained campaigns against such a practice

and through legislature, set the minimum age limit for marriage. The parents can also be enlightened through advocacy and persuasion.

2.5.7   Criminal Justice System in Nigeria

The Criminal Justice System (CJS), according to Ogundipe (2006) and Yusuf (2006), is a combination of institutions whose main objectives are the prevention and control of crime, the correction of offenders and by implication, the protection and preservation of legitimate individual liberty, rights and freedoms.

According to Agbakoba and Obeagu, 2002), the Criminal Justice System is tripartite comprising the Prisons, the Courts and the Police. Accordingly, the Criminal Justice System in Nigeria consists of the following:

(1)   Law enforcement and prosecution agencies, comprising of the:

    a. Police;

    b. National Drug, Law and Enforcement Agency (NDLEA);

    c. Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC);

    d. Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC);

    e. Ministries of Justice;

    f. Customs among others

(2)   The Judiciary, comprising all property constitutes court from the lowest to the Supreme Court.

(3)   The Prisons and Allied Institutions of corrections (Aneke, 2009).

Government all over the world whether democratic or socialist, uses their agents of social control to ensure social orders, thereby creating a climate conducive to social and economic development. For this reason societies have agencies of social control which is made up the Criminal Justice System (CJS) and are mandated with the following responsibility. According to Aneke (2009), to be appropriate, adequate and efficient, the examination of any of the Criminal Justice System (CJS) must be conducted in relation to its main objectives and it must involve the examination of each of its major units as a 'sub-system' of the whole as well as of the inter-sub-system relationship among those units-again, in relation to its main objectives.

2.5.7.1 Police and Ministries of Justice

The Police Force and the Ministries of Justice are assigned the investigation of complaints against persons. The function of prosecuting persons accused of crime in the lower courts, is also undertaken by the Police on behalf of the Attorney General, whose constitutional function it is to do so (Yusuf, 2006). He confirms that members of the Police Force are generally vested with the powers of arrest as spelt out in great detail in the Criminal Procedure Act, Criminal Procedure Code and the police Act. Any person arrested on suspicion of the commission of an offence must be taken immediately to the Police Station and must not be subjected to unnecessary restraint except there is reasonable apprehension of violence. In murder case, the person arrested is usually handcuffed. Reasons for an arrest are told to the accused in *Flagrate delicto* (in the course of the act). It is also the responsibility of the Police to gather and arrange the evidence required for the

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prosecution of an accused person. Conclusively, it is the duty if the Police to arrest, investigate and bail except in capital offences.

2.5.7.2   The Courts

The Courts are assigned the adjudication of accusations (Yusuf, 2006).   In the superior Courts, the law officers under the Attorney General undertake such functions. A person charge for an offence is entitled at the discretion of the Court, to bail before trial in all non-capital offences. The Court is empowered to admit to bail unless there is good reason to the contrary.

2.5.7.3   The Prison

As an arm of the Criminal Justice System responsible for the under-listed functions, the Prison Service is the barometer for measuring the success or failure of the Criminal Justice System.   The Prison Service derives its powers from CAP 366 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 1990 to perform the following functions:

i.   Take into custody all those legally interned,

ii.   Producing them before the courts as and when due if they are on remand,

iii.   Identifying the causes of their anti-social conduct,

iv.   Set in motion mechanisms for their retraining and reformation preparatory to returning them back to the society as normal, Law abiding citizens,

v.   Generating revenue for the State through the use of Prison Farms and industries for that purpose.

The relevance of the Prison in the crime control and prevention strategies of the State is given its most vivid expressions in those roles. By taken felons into custody, the first message that is sent out to both the offenders and would be offenders is that the commissioning of crime will inevitably lead to loss of personal freedoms, at least for a while. This message contains deterrence. For nobody wants to lose his or her freedoms let alone in prison custody. The fact that one could be sent to prison for any crime committed, deters some persons, even today from committing crimes with impunity. Besides, when armed robbers, drug pushers, pipeline vandals, murderers etc are taken into prison custody with the due process of law, they are prevented from further acting in ways that threatens social peace in the country. Accordingly, the objectives of the prison administration are based on the three key principles (3Rs) of Reformation, Rehabilitation and Reintegration (Agbakoba et al, 2002). The British Imperial Government introduced the prison system in Lagos between, 1861 and 1900, and was run by the Police Department. This was later withdrawn by 1920.

Generally, the criminal justice system in Nigeria has not yet broken its links with the colonial past. This has resulted in the extensive use of imprisonment and lack of initiative in the area of criminal law reforms. Belgore (2007), the retired Chief Justice of Nigeria confirms the above fact when he says:

> *'The bulk of our Criminal Code Act is archaic, unsuited to modern society and has allowed crime to proliferate. To my mind, a case of discharge and acquittal on technical grounds when the guilt of the*

> *accused is manifest in evidence is unsuited for our society' (Belgore, 200, p.75).*

Here, Belgore in his valedictory speech condemns the provisions of our legal system which do not aid disposition of justice. The methods of crime control, detection and administration of criminal justice have largely remained unchanged. There had been little or no innovative changes in the character, nature or style of the system. The other agents of the justice system like the police and the prisons are not spared of this static nature of the provisions of the legal system.

The police, judiciary and prisons among others are backed by an inadequately efficient and effective research system within the context of rapid urbanization and sub-urbanization processes. According to Alamieyeseigha (2005), the military rule of over twenty years has influenced the behavior of the police and security forces, which have been accused by Human Rights Organizations (HROs) of torture, extra-judicial killings, unlawful arrest and detention. The police's failure to deal effectively with escalating crime reflects poor training management and intelligence gathering. The prisons have not been given any face lifts for many years and so are over congested. Instead of being reformative in nature, they have become production grounds for hardened criminals. The judiciary also is crying for help and reforms. According to Uwazurike (2003), one can also pose the sociological question of the aims and objectives of punishment in Nigeria. The lamentable state of the various arms of law enforcement and the dispensation of justice, the police, courts, involving judges, the supreme court and even practicing lawyers and the prison system have had devastating impact on the popular perception of justice. In

practically all cases, basic professionalism has collapsed. Related to this is the question of funding for these various arms of law enforcement agencies.

The costs of ordinary crime prevention and control have continued to rise with the result that human and other resources deployed are over-stretched and clearly inadequate. This calls for a general appraisal of the country's criminal justice policy. It is hoped that the Uwais led judicial reform committee will be comprehensive enough to deal with all the problems inherent in the system and that the Federal Government will have the political will to implement them for the benefit of the society. There should also be a comprehensive research survey of crime in the country with a view of bridging violence and gender, age and educational standard of violence and ethnicity.

2.5.8   Issues of Conflicts and Conflicts Resolution in Nigeria

Although Nigeria has not experienced a full blown war after the 1970 Biafran war, there have been a series of localized bloody conflicts in different parts of Nigeria. Uwazurike (2003:82) gives an insight into the four most visible conflicts that occurred in Nigeria in 2001 alone:

I   State Military and Police Clashes

a.   Ijaws vs Government Security Forces, Niger Delta

b.   The Military repression of the Tiv in Benue State

c.   Allegations by MOSSOP of members killed, Okigwe.

II.   Inter-Ethnic Clashes

a.   Ijaws vs Itsekiris   -   Delta State

b.	Ilajes vs Ijaws	-	Ondo State
c.	Igbos vs Hausas	-	Kaduna, Kano States
d.	Yorubas vs Hausas	-	Lagos, Ibadan, Kano, Kaduna.

III.   Intra Ethnic Clashes

a.	Benue State	-	Tiv vs Jukun
b.	Anambra State	-	Aguleri vs Umuleri
c.	Osun State	-	Modakeke vs Ife

IV.   Religiously Motivated Clashes

In a country, where the above listed clashes are some of the mayhem that occurred in one year point to the fact that the issue of conflict and its resolution should be taken very seriously. According to Peretomode (2002), the major role players in the Warri crises are the youth and the elders. He says that the youth are the fighters when it is necessary to retaliate in the event of provocation. Also that most of them are unemployed, jobless and hungry and so find solace in the crisis situation as they consider such a situation an opportunity to be engaged, be useful to themselves and their ethnic group, to remove the yoke of the perceived oppression and degradation of their ethnic group.

In the light of all that has been said above, the plight of the youth who are the foot soldiers of most of the crisis should be given attention. Peretomode (2002) concludes that they are unemployed, jobless and hungry, so legitimate jobs should be found for them. If they are gainfully employed and have means of sustainable livelihood, they could hardly be persuaded to join tribal wars. Asuni (2002) notes that the stakes involved in the Niger Delta crisis are very high. This is because of

the huge amounts of money circulating around the Niger Delta and the huge revenue realized from crude oil. And because, the youth are used to huge sums of money given to them for their roles as fighters, most of them cannot be sustained on regular and menial jobs. Therefore, they need reorientation to change to a positive mindset and discard the belief that selfish gains from communal clashes were as destructive as the fights themselves. They should be made to understand that no reasonable development can take place in a violent environment. This is why the youth should know what conflict is and how to manage it before it escalates to skirmishes and war. Therefore, the inclusion of conflicts and their resolutions among the topic to be taught to the youth of this study cannot be over-emphasized.

2.5.9 Causes of Youth Restiveness in the Niger Delta.

The causes of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta cannot be given a strait jacket identification given the complexity associated with the problem of causation in the social sciences (Adekanye, 1999:107). In spite of this difficulty, understanding the causes of youth restiveness is the first step towards its prevention, management, reduction or complete elimination. According to Najibo and Umukoro (2009), there are multi-causal factors responsible for youth unrest in the Niger Delta. These include structural background conditions, accelerating factors and the triggers. To them, the structural background conditions point to the existence of a potential unrest and they include the differences in ethnic groupings, languages, religion and culture. The accelerating factors include democratization, rising cases of unemployment and poverty, marginalization (perceived or actual), the demands for empowerment, stress and strains of environmental cum human insecurity. The

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combined effects of the structural background conditions and the accelerating factors produce alarming social and ethnic tensions and conflicts which trigger off youth unrest in the Niger Delta.

According to Balogun (1999), the most prominent and devastating reason of youth unrest in the Niger Delta is the faulty socialization process and education of the present day youth and the negative social environment in which they have been socialized and educated. Ifaturoti (1994), Isichei (2001) and Osarenren (2005), all agree that the three major agents of socialization - the family, school and the society at large responsible for the correct up-bringing of a child have failed most of our youth.

Apart from faulty socialization, there are many other causes of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. Ofehe (2008) points out that unemployment and poverty are responsible for youth unrest in the Niger Delta which is manifested in increased armed robbery, hostility to oil companies, their staff and family, prostitution, ritual killings and kidnapping among other vices. Supporting this assertion, Azaiki (2003) identifies abject poverty as a cause of restiveness among the youth, in a region of oil economy that sustains a nation of a hundred and forty million people. According to him, the people of the region complain of marginalization and injustice meted to them in the distribution of the nation's financial resources. Despite the whooping 95 percent contribution to the nation's oil base economy, they get so little in return. They bear the burdens of oil production but are denied its benefits. Obateru (1994), Peretomode (2002), Ekpo (2004) and Alamieyesigha (2005), all agree that there is economic frustration, resulting especially from widespread unemployment among
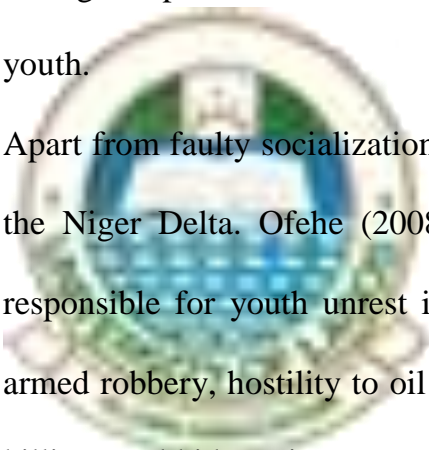
young people, particularly school leavers and graduates of tertiary institutions in the region. There are environmental exploitation, pollution and degradation that have rendered the land barren and aquatic lives non-existent. So, the people are displaced from their traditional occupation of fishing and farming. This has compounded the problem of unemployment among the youth of the area and so they are restless.

Related to the issue of unemployment and poverty is the problem of population control in the Niger Delta. Table one clearly paints the gloomy picture of the future of the region if nothing is done to control the population. The youth population is already 40% with Edo State recording 66%. Without adequate home training and proper formal education for the teeming youth, the region will face more social menace of youth restiveness.

According to Azaiki (2003) and Ekpo (2004) huge income gaps exist between the rich and the poor. There are poor and grossly inadequate housing and transportation facilities. The people lack social infrastructure particularly for education, health and outdoor recreation for the youth; public utilities, especially water and electricity supplies. There exist social and ethnic discrimination and inequalities in the nation against the people of the region. This view is in consonance with Ajumogobia,'s (2009) assertion that oil and gas was discovered in the Niger Delta over half a century ago and trillions of Naira generated from the region, yet very little of the wealth is visible in the lives of the people of the region. He decries a situation where the population has no access to the basic amenities like roads, electricity,

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health, education or even portable water. These facts among others make the people of the region to agitate for resource control and the practice of true fiscal federalism.

Obateru (1994) and Alamieyesigha (2005) point to easy availability of guns in the hands of the youth. If the amount of guns, both local and sophisticated weapons and ammunitions shown in Appendix H (pp.252-254) to have been surrendered in Bayelsa state alone are in the hands of the youth, there cannot be peace in such a region. According to Adejunmobi (2003) and Ekpo (2004) the Federal Government has militarized the whole of the Niger Delta through the use of regular and mobile policemen, complemented by trigger happy battalions of soldiers, the navy and the plain-clothes security agents who are ready to kill at the slightest provocation. There are many instances where the Federal Government deployed soldiers and other security agents have wiped out entire communities. They gave instances when the Federal Government used excessive force to destroy oil bearing communities. There is the destruction of Odi and Odiomu communities in 1999 and 2005 respectively. The Ogoni crisis of 1994 which resulted in the death of Ken Saro-Wiwa and eight of his kinsmen, the Umuechem saga of 1990 and the Choba crisis of 1999. The use of excessive force to exterminate whole communities, instead of fishing out a few miscreants among them, according to Azaiki amounts to excessive high-handedness. Moreover, children who are brought up in a violent environment are likely to grow up being violent themselves. This is the essence of Bandura's Bobo doll experiment.

Aina (1993) draws attention to influx of uncensored films and home videos, easy and uncontrolled youth access to the internet and inadequate parental guidance

generally. Oloko (2003) affirms that most parents leave children and young people alone all day without parental or adult guidance because their parents and guardians are at work. These young persons are exposed to violent films that are uncensored. Researchers (Comstock 1991, Albert 1994, Owens-Ibie 1994) have established the fact that there is a positive correlation between children who watch violent film and actual carrying out of violence by them. William Benson cited by Centerwall (1993) found that adolescents who watched excessive amount of television during their childhood became adult deviants. They committed crimes such as rape and assault, at a rate 49% higher than teenage boys who had watched below average quantities of television violence' (pp.70-71). Also Bandura's social learning theory has made the public to realize that exposure to violence does cause aggression in children.

Nwabueze (1995) and Isichei (2001) opine that the apparent problems bedeviling the Nigerian educational system are contributory factors to youth unrest. Supporting this view, Enyinmaya (2006) attributes the restiveness among the youth of the region to lack of access to qualitative education due to the collapse of facilities resulting from neglect by government and multi-national oil companies. He, therefore, sees the panacea to youth restiveness in the provision of qualitative education for them and ensuring that they pursue courses that are relevant to the needs of the nation and their immediate environment.

Ketti (2001) and Shafii & Shaffi (2001) observe that a lack of conflict resolution training is a significant contributor to violence. This appears to be relevant to the Niger Delta crisis. The region had for some time now become the centre of major confrontation between most communities on the one hand, and the Federal

Government/Oil prospective Companies/Security agents on the other (Azaiki, 2003; Nwanna-Nzewunwa, 2008). At the center of this confrontation is the disagreement in securing a safe ecological environment and better socio-economic conditions for the people of the region, among other things. These confrontations have grown into threats of outright rebellion against the state and are now ubiquitous (Ojakorotu, 2009). Yet, the school curriculum does not have any training on conflict resolution as a subject at the three levels of education in the region. According to Azakili (2003), social dialogue between companies and the host communities has been the key strategy for peaceful resolution of conflicts in the region. Although some successes have been recorded through social dialogue, according to Azaiki, a lot needs to be done to assuage feelings of the youth in the Niger Delta. This appears to justify the inclusion of conflicts and conflicts resolutions in the general social education as one of the topics taught to the youth of this study.

Ogbeifun (2007) blames the oil companies operating in the Niger Delta for youth unrest in the region. This he attributes to their insensitivity to the plight of their host communities. In flow stations and platforms, for example, oil companies enjoy all the comforts of civilization like electricity, portable water, telephones, decent housing and recreational facilities. Yet, the oil bearing communities, short distances away remain in darkness, drinking polluted water and in makeshift homes, with dilapidated school building for pupils and students. They also refuse repeatedly to honour Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) signed between them and their host communities. Qualified indigenes of host communities are hardly employed to handle managerial responsibility. Regrettably, major contracts are never awarded

to indigenous contractors from the Niger Delta area but to outsiders to the envy of the indigenes of the region. The oil companies instead of joining government to find lasting solutions to youth unemployment resort to the dubious method of employing some troublesome and notorious youth as 'stand-by labourer'. These categories of workers are not permanent staff of the companies and yet receive substantial monthly salaries. These distorted remunerations, rather than make things better create serious social problems and disharmony among the people. The activities of the oil and gas companies have employed various tactics of 'divide and rule' in the communities while denying them real development. The management of these companies identifies strong opinion leaders in their host communities and instigates them against the rest of the people. This encourages the emergence of rival groups to frequently precipitate violent change of leadership among the youth.

Omotola (2009) views the problem of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta from the perspective of the relationship between the arms carrying youth and the political leaders of the region. He accuses the political leaders of complexities as he traces how the youth metamorphosed from being political mercenaries into militants. To him, money is at the heart of the youth's attitudes to violence in the region. He is of the opinion that these youth are used by political leaders to prosecute elections. They are heavily armed and highly paid for their services as political thugs. After the elections, their services are usually no longer required but they are usually not disarmed. Their source of income haven dried up, Omotola concludes that the youth out of frustration decide to use the guns to cause mayhem in the region to create wealth for themselves.

Najibo and Umukoro (2009) and Otite (2009) identify the corruption by the political leaders of the region, community leaders and the militants as another cause of youth restiveness. This is as a result of the huge amount of money given to the region as Federal allocation and the lack of basic facilities and amenities in the area.

Moreover, the militants receive huge sums of money for the payment of ransom by either multinational oil companies or governments. Yet all these moneys are not translated to better conditions of living for the people of the region. Therefore, there are frustrations, agitations and violence in the region.

Nkoro (2005) identifies the lack of diversification of the economy away from oil production as one of the main causes of conflict in the Niger Delta. According to him, the domination of oil politics has resulted in a disproportional focus or efforts to gain employment and be associated with the oil industry. This has resulted in a mono-focus that failed to realize the potential for other economic activities based on local assets. So, there is scramble for oil jobs that are not there for them and there is frustration and restiveness.

Otite (2004), in a study of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta, investigates the problem from the perspective of the youth themselves. He discovers that the youth perceived insecurity and social injustice in the society against them as a motivation for their negative and anti-social behaviours. They describe their actions as revolutionary because the economy of the region had been disoriented by the taking over of communal lands without compensation and youth are unemployed. The oil

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companies, they argue, do not employ their qualified youth and graduates, rather they employ from the so-called major tribes in Lagos and Abuja.

Utuama (2009) exploring the legal dimensions of the Niger Delta crisis, identifies the nationalization of oil and gas resources found in the region and the skewed fiscal regime exemplified by the revenue allocation formula as fundamental variables in the perpetuation of youth violence in the region. He outlines how law, rather than serve as a tool for 'social engineering', has been used by the Federal Government as an 'instrument of expropriation and denial' in the region. Utuama cited the provisions of the 1979 and 1999 Constitutions and other legislations such as the Territorial Waters Act (1967), the Petroleum Act (1969), the Exclusive Economic Zone Act (1978) and the Land Use Act (1978) to drive home this point. He sums up the effect of these legislations as divesting the people of the region of their resources without compensation. Azaiki (2003) concurred when he writes that the retention of these laws in our statue book, the Constitution is a major cause of youth restiveness. Utuama asserts that these enactments contravene the common law doctrine of *quicquid plantatur solo cedit* meaning 'what is attached to the land accrues to the land and belongs to the owner'. He also observes that the enactment of the above laws is 'a clear contradiction of the regime of fundamental human rights entrenched in the independent 1960 Constitution and successive constitutions including the 1999 Constitution' (p.13). Utuama concludes by advising the country to take advantage of the on-going review of the 1999 Constitution to return to true federalism with true federal fiscal arrangement for the allocation of revenue.

Azaiki (2003) enthuses that successive Federal Governments in this country cannot absorb themselves from being part of the problem of youth restiveness. He explains that the causes of conflict in the Niger Delta include the people's perceived long standing marginalization of oil producing communities by successive governments at the three tiers and the lack of political will by past governments to enforce environmental laws as they affect the oil companies, especially as the same companies operate differently in developed nations of the world. The Federal Government instead of intervening through dialogue in the strain relationship of oil and gas companies with their host communities and the numerous communal clashes and vandalism of oil wells and pipelines, resorts to the use of coercion by security agents to attack its own civil society and taking sides with oil companies. The excessive use of weapon by security agents in the course of peace keeping often result in avoidable deaths and youth violence.

According to Imobighe (2002), land is the centre of the Warri crisis and land conflicts are among the endemic type of conflicts in Nigeria. The whole Niger Delta crisis revolves around land and the crude oil that is found therein. Land conflicts are the most intractable to solve because land is very important and a highly prized resource. Human sustenance is derived from land; hence there is a special attachment to it by all human societies. Alienating a people from their land is like removing them from their roots. Yet, the Federal Government through the Petroleum Act of 1986 and the land use Act of 1978 had appropriated the land of the people and their mineral resources without compensation.

Emeseh (2003), Kalu (2006) and Obagbinoko (2009), all opine that ecological degradation of the land, air and water resources of the area and the surrounding territories by the operations of oil and gas companies has made the land problem more acute. According to Hutchful (1985), the ecological disturbance include explosions from seismic surveys, pollution from pipeline leakages, blowouts, drilling fluids and refinery effluents as well as land alienation and widespread destruction of the natural terrain from construction activities.   Agreeing with Hutchful, Najibo and Umukoro (2009) point out that oil industry pollution arises from a variety of sources. The first is crude oil from pipeline leaks, failure of equipment or tank overflow from excessive pressure, failure along pump manifolds, blow out of oil wells and sabotage to well heads and flow lines. Additionally, Hutchful (1985), says that drilling mud and cuttings and gas operations are also sources of environmental pollution. In the Niger Delta, according to Okecha (2000:53), there is an overwhelming evidence of environmental pollution as a result of gas flaring. The average rate of gas flaring in the world is 4% but in Nigeria over 70% of the total gas production is flared and the main victims of this ecological genocide are the people of the Niger Delta. This can be compared to Libya's 21% gas flaring, Saudi Arabia's 20%, 4-5% in Mexico, Britain and Algeria while Holland, an oil producing country flares nothing. According to Obagbinoko (2009), the deadline for the gas flaring was fixed for 1985. A policy of gas re-injection was put in place. Pressure from the oil companies forced the government to abandon the policy. Shell canvassed 2008 as another deadline but this deadline could not be met. What is more is that none of the gas flaring sites has been discontinued.
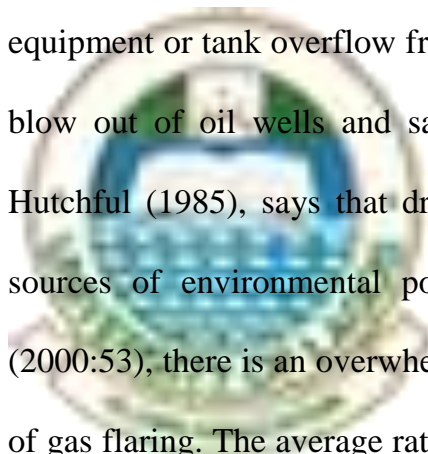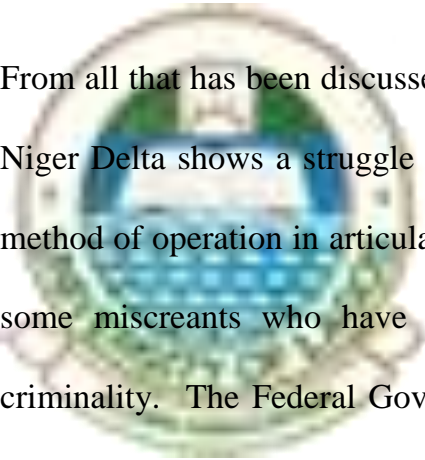
Stewart (2006) warns about the dangers and the grave consequences of environmental pollution resulting from oil exploration. He notes that crude oil contains thousands of different chemicals, many of them are toxic and some are known to be carcinogenic with undetermined safe threshold for human exposure. Kalu (2006) identifies high incidence of birth defects and cancer becoming very rampant in the Niger Delta as a result of the gas flaring activities of oil companies. This is corroborated in an earlier study of Okecha (2000) which reveals that gas flaring releases sulphur dioxide and oxides of nitrogen which are precursors of acid rain into the air with its resultant health hazards for the people. He says that these health hazards include skin cancer, birth defects, respiratory diseases of all kinds and sight problems. Okecha also observes that heavy water pollution from crude oil pollution is responsible for incidences of water borne diseases such as typhoid, cholera, bacillary dysentery, river blindness and guinea worm infections. He notes that oil spillage has changed the character of land in the Niger Delta. Such spillage is responsible for the destruction of crops, farms, vegetations, wildlife, water ways and fishing quarters and has impaired human life (p.57).

According to Ikelegbe (2005), the massive pollution of land, water, flora and fauna has proved disastrous as the resources on which the region survives has been decimated. The local economy of the people has been totally decimated and destroyed. This has aggravated poverty, unemployment and hunger which have fuelled a regime of anger, bitterness, frustration and violence.

Ozekhome (2003), as if summarizing what has been discussed above, lists the causes of youth restiveness in the region to include lack of youth development programmes by government, activities of oil companies, lack of participation of youth in policy and decision making, poverty, unemployment, oppression and marginalization, insensitivity of government to demands of youth, mistrust of elders. Other factors are; the youth's mistrust of elders and so they want to 'do it' themselves, environmental pollution, domination by major ethnic groups of the country, unitary nature of Nigeria's political system and lack of control of their natural resources.

From all that has been discussed above and a close study of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta shows a struggle of the youth for survival. The only problem is their method of operation in articulating their rightful demands. And of course, there are some miscreants who have hijacked an otherwise just course and introduced criminality. The Federal Government that is part of the Niger Delta problem can also help to solve the problem by mustering the political will to do so. The Umaru Musa Yar'dua led Federal Government appears to muster some courage to tackle the problems of the Niger Delta. The government has been able to establish the Niger Delta federal ministry, introduced the Amnesty programme and has promised to develop the Niger Delta by providing infrastructure. The amnesty period is over and all stakeholders are anxiously waiting for the commencement of the post Amnesty programme. The Federal Government has promised to teach the boys skills and re-integrate them into the society. Skills acquisition alone is not sufficient

to rehabilitate them. This study has revealed the need for a general social education and skills acquisition.

It is hoped that the creation of the Federal ministry of the Niger Delta and the current dialogue of President Musa Yar'Adua with the arms carrying youth of the Niger Delta and other stakeholders in the post amnesty programme will help in achieving the desired aim of peace and development for the youth and people of the region.

2.6   Crises in the Nigerian Educational System

Generally, the major aim of education in any society at any period would depend on the kinds of values greatly cherished for directing human development within that society. According to Osokoya (2004), in a developing country like Nigeria, education should aim at promoting national unity, removing social inequalities, providing individual happiness and pleasure, training for vocational competence, providing both middle manpower for economic development, as well as promoting international understanding, public morality, self-realization, public enlightenment and civilized behaviour. But the Nigerian educational system is not achieving the desired aim as envisaged by Osokoya as a result of inherent problems in the educational system. To better understand the crises in the Nigerian educational system, it is pertinent to trace the history of education in Nigeria from pre-colonial period to the present in order to appreciate what went wrong at what stage of development. For this purpose, the history of education will be divided into the pre-national policy era and the national policy era.

2.6.1   The Pre-National Policy Era

In pre colonial period, education among the various ethnic groups of Nigeria was an induction into society and a preparation for adulthood.   Indigenous education, though informal was aimed at inculcating attitudes and values in children and integrating individual into the wider society.   According to Osokoya (2004) and Fafunwa (1974), indigenous education was given through a carefully planned programme of initiations, festivals, age-grade system, home and community education (not in school settings).   Its curriculum included mathematical concepts. Right from early years the children learn how to add, subtract and divide countable goods such as fish, money, yams and so on.   The young ones were corrected whenever a wrong sound speech was made to the hearing of any adult.   Through story-telling, poetry and incantations at religious rituals, the elders taught the young ones the history of their ancestors, success and failure at wars between villages and clans.   Physical education was practiced through social and ritualistic dances and wrestling.   Vocational training was largely run on the apprenticeship system under masters craftsmen which had three major forms.   The first was Agricultural education such as farming, fishing and veterinary science (animal care and rearing). The second aspect was trades and crafts such as weaving (basket and cloth), smiting (iron, silver, gold), hunting, carving (wood and bronze), building, drumming, boat-making, dress making and so on. The third form was professional education such as traditional medicine, priesthood/ shrine keeping and so on. Commenting on the apprenticeship training of the indigenous education, Archibald (1904) cited by Osokoya (2004) writes:

> *'The vast apprenticeship training system began as part of wider*
> *education process in which the indigenous societies of Nigeria*
> *passed on their cultural heritage from one generation to the next.*
> *The skills owned by a family were highly valued and in some lines*
> *such as native medicine secrets were zealously guarded as they were*

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> *indeed today. Learning a craft often began with personal service to the master. Young boys would become house servants to a closer relative, who would feed and clothe them, and after some years of promising usefulness, they would then gradually be introduced to the craft of the guardian'* (Archibald, cited in Osokoya 2004, p.34).

Indigenous education placed much emphasis on developing the individual to be honest, respectable, co-operative and to conform with the social order of the community. Building a good character in the child is the responsibility of the parents, the various members of the family, the extended family, neighbours and community members. In his own contribution to the study of traditional education in Nigeria, Fafunwa (1974) declares:

> *'In traditional Nigerian society, all parents want their children to be upright, honest kind and helpful to others and will spare no pains to instill these qualities – The saying 'spare the rod and spoil the child' is very much in vogue. All Nigerian parents irrespective of ethnic group, prefer to remain childless than to have children who will bring shame and dishonour to the family' (*Fafunwa , 1974. p. 84).

The intellectual development of the child was also a focal point in the indigenous education. This was done through the hundreds of proverbs and folktales on moral and ethical behaviour and the consequences of bad behaviour or misconduct. It was an education that encouraged abstract reasoning, intellectual growth and development. According to Osokoya (2004), the major learning processes of the indigenous education are by observation, imitation and participation. It is necessary to remark at this point that the thrust of Bandura's Social Learning Theory (1977) is through this simple process or line of action by observation, imitation and participation.

According to Isichei (1998), the general system of indigenous education had a close link with social life. It gave a progressive development which conformed with the

successive stages of physical, emotional and mental development of the child. Both sexes were educated along the lines of their functions in the society. Therefore, there was nothing like unemployment or underemployment as we have today. In this regard, the indigenous education can be seen as a participatory education which gave the child an integrated experience and a formidable intellectual exercise and thus can be said to be a functional education.

Apart from the traditional system of education, Islamic education was well developed especially in the northern part of Nigeria where Islam had been the predominant religion. Isa (1971) claims that the Islamic or Quranic education provided additional instruction in character development. The Quranic schools catered for both male and female Muslim children. Many of the girls, however, often left after a few years either to get married or essentially because Islam did not so much emphasize any advanced religious education for the women folk. Like the indigenous education, Islamic education was greatly suited to the society it served. Both forms of education, no doubt consciously or unconsciously provided individual members of the society with adequate skills, aptitudes and competencies needed for coping with life's problems before the coming of the Christian Missionaries who founded schools and propagated Christianity in Nigeria.

The introduction of Western education in Nigeria was closely bound up with the activities of various Christian Missionaries who brought this system of education. According to Ajayi (1986) by 1877, the British administration was firmly established in Lagos. However, education was still the monopoly of the Christian Mission. Osokoya (2004) observes that the school's curriculum was heavily

religion based, intensely denominational and shallow in content. As a result, the missionaries were greatly restricted by Muslin Emirs in the North. This, however, explained the gap in educational development between the North and South of Nigeria.

Apart from conversion into Christianity, part of the objective of missionary education was to produce serviceable subordinates to be clerks, artisans, assistant engineers, interpreters, teachers and dispensers. Therefore, the educational provision was for basic literacy, with emphasis on religious knowledge, reading and Bible study, writing and working simple arithmetic problems. With the introduction of Secondary Grammar Schools, the curriculum was denominated by the British Empire history, European geography, English literature, Latin and Philosophy. The curriculum was therefore, foreign, having been developed abroad, textbooks imported and with British content.

It was obviously clear that neither the missionaries nor the government knew the exact needs of the Nigerian society. As a result, the techniques of instruction in vogue in the Nigerian schools were the 'look and say' (Osokoya 2004) and the lecture method, dominated by the teacher in an authoritarian manner. This authoritarian manner no doubt created fear of school in some pupils and students which led to their dropping out of school with adverse consequences on the students and society in general (Obe, 1984). They overlooked the generalization that learning was best accomplished through active participation among learners. Even the indigenous education recognized this fact and gave it its best shot. It is noteworthy

that all the participatory function of the learners in the indigenous education ensured that there was no unemployment and no underemployment in traditional societies. This important aspect of the traditional education must be examined and tapped into in a search for solution into the unemployment problem of modern society.

According to Fafunwa (1990) in 1959, regional government was established with each region showing greater interest in education. A Ministry of Education was created in each of the region with a minister as a head. This development brought an unprecedented expansion in education across the region. The Western region government initiated a scheme of Universal Primary Education (UPE) which provided education for children of the region for ages 6 – 12 years. The Eastern region government followed suit. This scheme also brought about significant increase in school population. The decade (1950 – 1960) witnessed a rapid expansion in Primary and Secondary education nation-wide. Therefore in anticipation of the manpower needs of the country, in 1959 a commission called 'Ashby Commission' was set up to conduct an investigation into Nigeria's educational needs at various levels over the next two decades. The commission submitted its report in 1960 and titled it 'investment in education'. Its outcome brought about expansion in education at all levels and formed the basis of educational development for manpower.

According to Osokoya (2004), the educational system continued to follow the British pattern in structure, content and organization. With the attainment of independence, the country had developmental needs and aspirations which the colonial educational system could not meet. It was generally felt to be functionally

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inadequate in meeting the needs of Nigeria and Nigerians. Various other commissions like Ikoku (1962) and Taiwo (1968) later highlighted the inadequacies of the colonial system. Osokoya (2004) writes:

> *'a number of educationist through public lectures, conferences, workshops, symposia and seminars have identified the weaknesses of the educational system as being 'too academic, theoretical and unsuitable for providing overall development for Nigerians'* (Osokoya, 2004, *p. 30).*

Nigerians' increase in awareness and the need for a relevant and development-oriented educational system had promoted the agitation for 'a re-evaluation of the existing system and the desire for national policy on education' which would address the inadequacies of the old system and provide educational practice throughout the nation. This national need resulted in subsequent conferences. The first national conference was held in Lagos in 1969 and the second one took place four years later in 1973. These conferences gave birth to the national policy on education popularly referred to as the 6-3-3-4 system of education. It is a system of education which will make the Nigerian child attend primary school for six years, three years in junior secondary school, three years of senior secondary school and four years of university education. This new system of education will replace the former system where the Nigerian child attended primary school for six years, secondary school for five years and university for three years through direct entry or four years through prelim. According to Obanya (2003), the new system is conceived to provide functional education which will enable its recipients to function socially, economically, morally, intellectually and politically. It is a

conscious effort to match and merge academic and vocational educational programmes. It is job oriented. It places premium on manual activities, technical proficiency and respect for the dignity of labour and economic efficiency.   It provides the child with basic tools to prepare him for local craft. At the secondary stage, emphasis is on the acquisition of vocational skills while it is professionally oriented at the tertiary level so as to minimize unemployment and produce skilled manpower in science and technology.

According to Nwagwu (1982), the main objective of this national policy of education is to make education functional and to eradicate unemployment among school leavers and graduates. In order words, the 6-3-3-4 system of education aims at returning the country to the era of indigenous education when there was no unemployment or underemployment of youth. But this time around, technological advancement is to be given attention. This form of education is to make the nation solve its unemployment problems and at the same time keep abreast with rest of the world technologically.

2.6.2   National Policy on Education and its Implementation Problems

In June 1982, the National Policy on Education was introduced to schools in Nigeria. The document was first published in 1977, was revised in 1981, 1998 and 2004. The current edition which is the 4th covers 13 sections as against the 11 sections of the original document. The two additional sectors are the Basic Education and the Open and Distance Education. The National Policy on Education also known as the 6-3-3-4 system has its philosophy tied to the five national objectives of building:

(a)   a just and egalitarian society;

(b)   a free and democratic society;

(c)   a united, strong and self reliant nation;

(d)   a great and dynamic economy; and

(e)   a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens.

The provision of a philosophical base for Nigerian education which is the first section of this document deserves commendation. The document specified the role of education as 'an instrument par excellence' for affecting national development. It is also, the first time and the only educational document in post-independence Nigeria that has a universal application for the whole country. Another innovative feature of the policy is the emphasis on pre-primary education. Before this document, there has been no reference to this important aspect of education in Nigeria. The policy tried to itemize the objectives of the pre-primary education and gave guidelines as to the establishment and control of institutions. But it is disheartening that the document is silent on the control that was to be exercised by the officials of the ministry of Education as well as ways of improving the quality of pre-primary education available to the masses. With more mothers going out of the home to work (Oloko, 2003), one would have expected the document to specify government plans for control and management of pre-primary education. These Nursery Schools have in most cases taken over the role of the home as the first agent of socialization for most children. Without proper control and supervision as is the case at present, it can to a large extent be said to be responsible for maladjustment in most children. These maladjusted children grow up to create social problems for the nation.

The primary education curricula inherited from the old school system was sharply criticized as being too literary, academic and theoretical while the institutional materials have been found quite unrelated to the background of the Nigerian child. To revolutionize the primary school curricula, the policy sets out to accomplish two major functions for primary school education. Firstly, it is to serve as a complete form of education in itself. Secondly to prepare the few top ones for secondary education. But the problem with the policy on primary education is that it is ambiguous with regards to whether it is terminal or transitional for all graduates. Perhaps to make the primary education more functional would have been to expect the major objective of primary education as a preparatory course for junior secondary school. This oversight poses a problem. There is the problem that the primary education is not vocation oriented and cannot provide gainful employment for its graduates. When those who drop out at this stage grow up, they add to the teeming population of unemployed youth with its attendant problems. Even the Universal Basic Education (UBE) which will terminate at the Junior Secondary School after nine years will be unable to solve this problem of unemployment of the primary school leaver, if vocational and technical education is not properly organized.

At the secondary school level where vocational and technological training are provided for, there is the problem of implementation. A glaring example is that only 60% of junior secondary graduates allowed in NPE to proceed to senior secondary school and the rest should move to technical colleges, vocational training centers and apprenticeship schemes. The truth is that the vast majority, say about

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90%, continue to senior secondary school. This is because every parent or guardian wants his child or ward to go to the university irrespective of their intellectual capability. None or very few children are encouraged to take the technical or vocational option. The end result is the acquisition of certificates and mass unemployment for our youth.

According to Hodges (2001), the NPE was expected to have addressed all the observed malfunctions of the old system, and to also satisfy the development needs of the country. The policy examines the various sectors of the formal educational system starting from the pre-primary, primary, secondary, higher education including professional education, technical education, adult and non-formal education, special education, teacher education, educational services, administration and planning of education and financing of education. While the researcher is not going to repeat what is described under each of the various sectors mentioned above, the study would appraise the policy document and discuss only relevant sections.

The document boldly specified the means of breaking away from the British oriented secondary education already planted in the country's educational system. The policy prescribed a two-tier secondary education lasting for duration of six years. The junior secondary school is expected to be both academic and pre-vocational. The senior secondary schools will be comprehensive having a number of fields including academic, vocational, technical and teacher training. The N P E could be regarded as a major landmark in the Nigeria educational development. When it was introduced in 1982, Fafunwa (1982) describes the policy as a laudable

programme capable of ushering in an educational revolution in Nigeria, a step in the right direction towards technological revolution in the development of the nation. However, the current situation on ground is far from this ideal. The system seems to be suffering from poor and shoddy implementation.

At the National Stakeholders Consultation on Education (2000) held in Abuja, participants made a searching diagnosis of the main challenges facing the educational system in Nigeria. These include inadequate school infrastructure, over-crowded classrooms, poor remuneration for the educational workforce, societal disaffection with the educational system, inadequate access at all levels, lack of relevant, appropriate and responsive curriculum, an over emphasis on route learning, endemic strikes by teachers, wide gap between the intentions and achievement of the NPE, problems of organization and management, outdated examination practices and an examination – led school system, deficiency in educational monitoring and evaluation procedures, inadequate funding and lack of reliable statistical data.

Educational inputs such as school infrastructure, the teaching staff, educational materials and equipment, the curriculum and teaching methods are some of the key factors within the education system which most directly affect the quality of education. The situation with respect to each of these will be reviewed in turn before turning to the underlying factors, such as organizational and management issues and the funding of education.

2.6.2.1 School Infrastructure

This is the physical setting for education. The key issue therefore is whether the number and location of schools and classrooms correspond to the school age population and its distribution and whether the construction of school infrastructure is sufficient to keep pace with the growth of the school age population to accommodate the past shortfall of enrolment. Although there is limited data available, glaringly evident by observation, is the fact that there is a wide gap between the number of schools and classrooms and the school age population at all levels of education. The number of schools and classrooms are fewer than the school age population at the different levels of education. Some of the worst affected areas are the cities with their dense population of children, resulting in high classroom/teacher ratios. A related issue, Hodges (2001) questioned is whether the physical condition of school buildings is conducive to creating a favourable learning environment. The physical quality of schools is another factor affecting enrolment and attendance. He continues that if the number of schools that met the criteria for refurbishment by the Petroleum Trust Fund (PTF) between 1997 and 1998 is a measure to go by, then over 80% of schools can be considered deficient in physical quality. Ivowi (2005) observes that in some rural areas, there is the serious problem of children receiving instructions under trees. Others are in classrooms without roofs. This unconducive learning environment can be key factor in diminishing motivation of children and their parents for school attendance.

2.6.2.2   Poor Remuneration for Education Workforce and Incessant Strikes

The reward structure, in terms of salaries and benefits for teachers and other staff in the education workforce is pitifully inadequate. This is in spite of the attempts to bring about parity with other workers in the civil service and some success in ending the irregularity in the payment of teachers' salaries which was a distinctive feature in the 1980s and 1990s. Despite these improvements, teachers in Nigeria remain poorly motivated. Their workload and the significance of their services to the nation and future generations far outweigh their levels of remuneration and public worth. These two reasons account for the shortfall in application for admission to faculties and colleges of education. In 2001, for over the five hundred thousand applicants for University admission, less than 2% applied for courses in Education. Worse still, only ten thousand applicants applied for places in sixty two Colleges of Education (Hodges, 2001).

Nwabueze (1995), Isichei (2001) and Alamieyesiegha (2005) agree that the poor salary structure for the educational workforce has also led to endemic strikes by teachers. Ejiogu cited in National Orientation agency (Nigeria)/NTA (2006) observes that Nigeria is perhaps the only country with a very high rate of strikes. A whole academic session was lost to strikes in Nigeria in 2003. These strikes affect the school calendar and cause their own damage to the educational system. There is loss of manpower wastages and students know when they are admitted into universities but do not know when they will graduate. According to Nwabueze(1995),

> *'The main issue in NUT's 2 months long strike was their grievance over the funding and management of Primary*

Schools by local governments, under the controversial Decree
*3 of 1991' (*Nwabueze,1995, *p. 24).*

A strike by the Association of Senior Staff of Universities (ASSU) and other unions in Nigerian universities from August to October, 2009 was to press home demand for more pay and better conditions of service.

2.6.2.3   Curriculum and Teaching Methods

Hodges (2001) asserts that curriculum analysis on paper reveals that the learning experiences that are provided for the Nigerian child from basic through higher education are rich and varied. These learning experiences are capable of meeting the immediate and future needs of the children. Also, primary, secondary and higher education are generally regarded as superior to those in most Sub-Sahara Africa and by and large comparable with those in the developed world. But the schools' curriculum in Nigeria has been criticized for being over ambitious, resulting in 'overload' and insufficiently tailored to the needs of the labour market, particularly in pre-vocational and vocational and technical courses. Isichei, (2001) observes that the curriculum of the university can no longer meet the challenges of the 21st century. Lecturers and students do not have access to modern technology that facilitates teaching. Internet access does not exist for majority of staff and students. The curriculum should be reviewed in line with the changes in technological development. New teaching and research aids should be acquired for teaching and research. Obanya (2007) draws attention to a wide gap between the intended curriculum and what actually is learned by pupils as evidenced from inadequate number of

teachers and the incessant strikes by teachers, low quality of teaching methodology and teacher education, poor salary structure for teachers, deficiency in school infrastructure, equipment and materials. The dominant use of the lecture method and rote learning adopted in primary, secondary and tertiary institution in Nigeria do not encourage meaningful learning. These methods of teaching /learning can be traced to poor quality preparation and lack of resources. Good quality teachers are known to be innovative in the pedagogical methods in the face of acute shortage of teaching materials. Therefore, efforts should be made towards producing good quality teachers.

2.6.2.4   Funding Education

The major factor affecting education in Nigeria is funding. Education expenditure by nature is dynamic. It is never constant. The cost of running schools increases successively due to increase in enrolment, increase in the number of teachers and needed infrastructure and facilities. Despite the natural increase in cost as a result of expansion, there is also the issue of inflation which impacts negatively on the system annually. Educational expenditure naturally increases by each successive year. Unless there is corresponding increase in finance to take care of the natural and inflation rates, there will continue to be problem for the system.

Aluko (1993) and Jiyeoba and Atanda (2004) note that successive Nigerian governments have neglected the education sector through lack of funding, which has had a direct negative impact on the quality of education.

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Alamieyesiegha (2005) observes that in 1995, the private sector was mandated to contribute to the funding of education, through the Petroleum (Special) Trust Fund (PTF). The Education Decree No. 7 of 1993 compelled all companies operating in Nigeria with a minimum of 100 employees to contribute 2 percent of their pre-tax earnings to the Education Tax Fund. This fund which is expected to complement Federal budgetary allocation from all indications is bedeviled by allegations of mismanagement. According to him,

> *'if one were to proffer a panacea for the present state of malaise and despair in all aspect of our educational enterprise in Nigeria today, adequate funding would be unquestionably central to all considerations' (*Alamieyesiegha, 2005, *p.105).*

Funding has made it difficult to provide sufficient school classrooms, train enough teachers, pay them adequately and provide other inputs necessary for the realization of the country's educational goals. A direct consequence of the low level of funding is the poor motivation and low morale of the operators of the system. According to Isichei (1998),

> *'with the problem of government funding education steering at us in the face without immediate solution in sight, it is perhaps time to recognize that universal free education, in principle is economically absurd and to attempt it is intellectual emasculation, it is socially polarizing and destructive of the credibility of the political system which promotes it' (*Isichei, 1998, *p.124).*

Isichei continues that the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme which was adopted in 1999 to provide access to junior secondary school as well as primary education for all Nigerians children has also failed because it was politically formulated and not educationally formulated. Perhaps, the most fundament of all the reasons for the inconsistent implementation of the policy is the insufficient political

will to translate into reality the formal commitments to ensuring universal access to quality basic education. According to the Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey in 2001, 43 percent of children aged 6 – 10 were not in school. Of this figure, 45% of girls were out of school while 41% of boys were out of school. These figures would have increased by now as a result of the present harsh economic climate in the country and so many more children would have been out of school.

 Another problem is that of planning in the education sector which is hampered by lack of reliable, up-to-date comprehensive data. The problem is compounded by the lack of reliable population data. Furthermore, there is dearth of financial data. Although information on actual expenditure on education is available from the budget reports of the Federal Government, this is difficult to obtain for all the States. This compromises financial analysis of the education sector, which is essential for optimal resource allocation, whether between States, between tiers of the education system or between categories of expenditure such as personnel, materials, equipment and buildings. There is also the weak monitoring and evaluative mechanism. Inspectorate divisions at both the Federal and the State levels, should be turning the searchlight on the gaps and calling for remedial action where it is needed. But hardly ever do they perform this role. Perhaps because they are severally under-funded or they lack staff trained in modern monitoring and inspection methods.

2.6.2.5 The Failure of Science and Technology

The implementation problems of the policy, according to Ivowi (2005) cannot be divorced from the way the introductory technology, science as a whole and vocational subjects are implemented in schools all over the nation. Education in all societies, be they primitive, complex or modern is expected to transform both the individual and society. It is an agent of socialization for human and national development. It therefore, means that any phenomenon that hinders education from achieving this goal of transformation is an educational problem. The poor standard of science and technological education is one of such problems. The poor standard of scientific and technological education manifests itself in so many ways against national development. Science and technology education according to Oriaifo (2005) is a reality that is both a process and an end. It is a process in the sense of being an avenue through which persons are trained to acquire knowledge skills, competences and attitudes for civilized living. On the other hand, it is an end in sense that its products which include the trained person are duly equipped and accomplished to meaningfully participate in and contribute to the 'good' life of society. Science and technology have afforded man the opportunity to exploit his immediate and remote environment right up to the outer space for the benefit of the individual and society at large.

According to the National Policy on Science and Technology (NPST, 1986):

> *'Science and Technology are to the modern life what the hands are to the body. They are used to harness the forces of nature and to transform the raw resources with which nature endows man into goods and services for better quality of life' (*NPST, 1986, *p.49).*

From the above, it can be seen that Science and Technology are the key to the production of skilled manpower for technological advancement and economic

growth. They have the central aim of exploration and discovery for application and development. The aim is to invigorate the creative and critical sensibilities of the learner for a productive and useful life to self and society.

Njoku (2001) asserts that modern world has become dominated by science and technology that there is hardly any economic activity that is not propelled by them. Edem (2005) is of the opinion that in future, only persons with appropriate and appreciable knowledge and skills in Science and Technology disciplines would be required in the job market. While the researcher is not in total agreement with this prediction, its implication for economic survival, relevance and social mobility is not in doubt. Science education is also needed to dispel ignorance, poor cultural practices and beliefs in society. Nigeria is still enslaved by diseases, poverty and ignorance. These call for effective science education that is relevant to be improvement of the society.

The goals of science and technology education in the NPE is to give general and functional literacy in science and technology for useful living in society as well as specialized knowledge and skill for production and system maintenance in the nation. The aim is to make graduates of this education self reliant and to create a great and dynamic economy for the nation (Edem, 2005). The Federal Government made efforts, thereafter, to effect changes in the educational structure, content and practice. Nigeria's earnest struggle through education to fit into the scientific and technological world could be seen in the establishment of a number of specialized institutions of science and technology such as universities of science and technology, polytechnics, technical and vocational colleges/schools (Abdullahi,
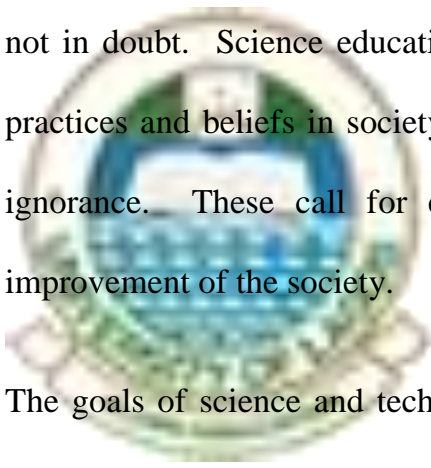
1980, Edem, 2005). Enrolment in these institutions and schools has been on a steady increase. Edem concludes that despite all these efforts by the Federal Government, society has not felt the impact of these many specialized institutions of science and technology due to poor funding, poor infrastructure and learning facilities.

Many writers, Aworanti (1970); Afemike (1982); Fafunwa (1990) and Etuk, (2000) have observed that science education is still riddled with many problems. According to Fafunwa,

> *There are still myriad of problems facing science, technology and mathematics education in this country. Since they cut across the entire spectrum of our educational system, I will merely itemize them. Prominent among these problems are:*
> - *acute shortage of qualified professional science teachers particularly in some science subjects;*
> - *lack of discipline;*
> - *the exhibition of poor knowledge of content and processes of science by many science teachers;*
> - *shortage of science laboratories, poor state and lack of maintenance of equipment in the laboratories (where available);*
> - *the possible abuse and misuse of the continuous assessment exercise by some teachers;*
> - *scientifically illiterate populations;*
> - *non-dissemination and implementation of research findings in science education programme within the country;*
> - *over-crowded science classes;*
> - *lack of positive disposition to issues relating to the teaching of science by non-science school administrations;*
> - *less active participation of women in science, technology and mathematics;*
> - *adherence to old teaching methods in spite of exposure to more viable alternatives;*
> - *lack of relationship between science learnt at school and the cultural environment of the child; and*
> - *emphasis on syllabus coverage rather than on meaningful learning of scientific concepts (Fafunwa, 1990, p.5).*

Recent reports, Okeke (2001); Obanya (2003); Mark (2003) show that science and technology education still exhibits the above characteristics and problems. The consequences of these myriad of problems, is that many science and technology graduates produced could not be gainfully employed or carry out any meaningful research within the limits of what is available (Edem 2005). A fall-out from this, is that science and technology education has not been linked to the world of work. Edem (2005) opines that at present science and technology education and the technological industry are viewed as two isolated and unrelated fields. He asserts that not until the link is properly connected, the problem of finding jobs for the graduates of this education will be difficult. UNESCO (2003) reveals that Nigeria derives 90% of its wealth from oil industry but only 2% of the population work in this sector. Most of the labour force is foreign. This gives a true picture of the inadequacy in the skilled labour force in the country with a high rate of unemployment rate among the youth. This brings to fore, the relevance of the skill acquisition being recommended for the restive youth of the Niger Delta who are out of school by this researcher.

In an effort to encourage science and technology education, NPE (1986, p.40) stipulates 60% admission privilege to science students and 40% to humanities in all tertiary institutions in the country. This is not strictly adhered to at the implementation level. The resultant effect of this is the acquisition of paper certificates which leaves the teeming youth graduates unemployed. Kranzberg (1976) describes four ways man is supposed to benefit from science and technology. These four ways are:

i. increase in his production of goods and services;

ii. the reduction of the amount of labour needed to produce goods and services;

iii. an easier way for man's labour and

iv. to give man higher living standards.

In line with this thought, Isichei (1988) points out, thus:

> 'It is the experience in the modern world that the development of automobile has influenced where people live and work and how they spend their leisure time; radio and television changed entertainment habits, telephone has revolutionized communications. Technology has come a long way to help man achieve goals that would conquer hunger, reduce sickness by preventive medicine, help increase life span through nutrient science and the cure of diseases. The tremendous ease and shiftness with which goods and persons are transported round the world is the industrial technology's contribution to the nations of the world' (Isichei, 1988, p.3).

Despite the tremendous role played by science and technology in the social and economic transformation of society and the efforts to improve science and technology education, Isichei observes that Nigeria is today a 'dumping' ground of goods and services of advanced technologies of the developed nations of the world. This is as a result of the backwardness in science and technology education, where the graduates can neither modify nor maintain these imported products to meet the needs of the Nigerian society. This researcher like Olotu (1987) and Isichei (1988) believes that the level of backwardness in science and technology education can be overcome if the teaching and learning of 'alternative technology' is encouraged.

According to Olotu:

> 'Alternative technology fills the gap between the primitive technology and the modern sophisticated one. Alternative technology is oriented to problem-solving to meet local technological needs. It involves the designing, application and manufacturing of various useful products using locally available materials, engineering hand-tools and

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equipment. Essentially, alternative technology involves modernization and upgrading of indigenous technologies. Power equipment or machinery which has to be imported or is otherwise difficult to obtain should be kept to a minimum' (Olotu, 1987, p. 268).

Two decades after this recommendation, it is still very relevant as a solution to the problem of science and technology education today. This is because a technology that evolves from the culture and the social needs of a nation will be more enduring. More importantly, science and technology education should be seen not only for its economic and national development but also its mental and moral development of people, particularly the nation's youth. According to Oriaifo (2005), the process method, discovery and inquiry approaches in science and technology education foster the development of desirable traits known as scientific attitudes in the learner. These scientific attitudes include patience, curiosity, originality, humility, simplicity, cooperation, punctuality, regularity, honesty, empiricism, carefulness, diligence, reliance on evidence, resourcefulness, courage, respect for data, concern for accuracy and inquisitiveness (p.14). All the above values and attitudes are what the youth of today are in short supply of. As such, science and technology education will go a long way in inculcating in the youth who undergo such education, morals and the ability to develop critical thinking intelligence, aid problem-solving and creativity. This in turn justifies the inclusion of skill acquisition in the treatment strategy of this study.

2.7   Education and its Relevance to the Social Problem of Youth

   Restiveness

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Education has been defined by different authors in different ways. No matter which definition one may adopt, the central theme to them is that 'by education the behavior of children/learner is always being changed' (Ottaway cited in Isichei, 2001). According to Goldman (2009), 'No one has yet realized the wealth of sympathy, the kindness and generosity hidden in the soul of a child. The effort of every true education should be to unlock that treasure.'

According to Egwunyenga (2005), education gives deep understanding and awareness of facts, skills, values, environments, culture or anything that makes man to live a good life. The education a person receives does not mean the literacy of 'is' and 'was' or '2 plus 2' but the literacy of liberation and mobilization. She continues that it involves critical awareness of reality, critical reception of information and purposive action to transform one's situation. For a socio-political development, education liberates the mind of a person from ignorance and superstition and challenges him to take interest in understanding what happens around him and to possibly change his situations. Through education, children of illiterates and poor parents are uplifted. This automatically changes their socio-economic status, that of their children and communities. According to her, education if properly provided leads to modern skill acquisition, producing professionals in various fields that can transform societies. This leads to improved technology and consequently higher productivity thus economic development. Through education, basic raw materials can be processed for export to earn foreign exchange. These small scale processing industries can lead to employment and improved economic well being of the people in such communities. Knowledge
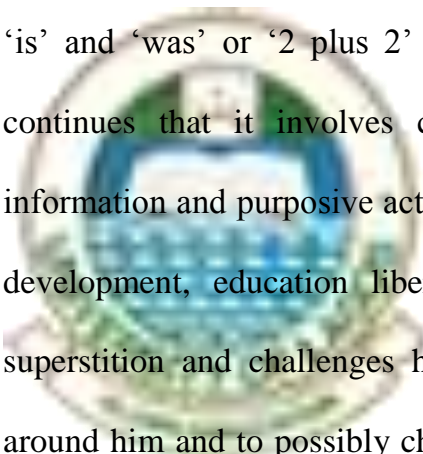
acquired from education can help people to appreciate change and its dynamism. Society and the environment are dynamic and are constantly undergoing changes. She concludes that through education, people living within a particular era can evolve new ideologies to address their present situation, problem or challenge. Through education, the understanding of the nature of diseases and better control and management measures are evolved. Death and illnesses have been generally reduced in modern societies due to education.

From the foregoing, it is evident that the goal of education is the transformation of the individual and society. The aim and philosophy of education can be formulated and changed to give direction to what a nation expects from education. That is why Nigeria has adopted 'education par excellence for national development. Education has enormous potentials for transformation hence this researcher believes that it can be used to transform the youth in this study. Looking at the role of education in ancient cultures of Sparta and Athens, it is evident that education was used to achieve the desires of these ancient civilizations.

In ancient Sparta, the purpose of education was to produce a well-drilled, well-disciplined marching army. So, the young ones were taught to be proud. They have to endure unbelievable pain and hardship to live a harsh and often brutal life in the soldiers' barracks. They were beaten by older children who started the fights to help make them tough and strong. They were often whipped in front of groups of other Spartans including their parents, but never cried out in pain. They were given little food, but encouraged to steal food instead. If caught stealing, they were

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beaten. To avoid severe pain, they learned to be cunning, to lie, to cheat, to steal and how to get away with it. Some of them are members of the Spartan secret police (Krypteia) and enjoyed spying on slaves. If they found a slave who was showing signs of leadership, they have orders to kill him immediately. They were fierce, capable and proud of strength. They were to feel superior and delighted to be Spartans. (http://members.aol.com/Donnclasss/Greeklife.html).

In ancient Athens, the purpose of education was to produce citizens trained in the arts and the sciences, to prepare citizens for both peace and war. The young Athenians were taught to be courteous, having been superbly educated in the arts and sciences and trained to be extremely productive and capable in times of peace or war. They were taught to be achievers. Before age 6 or 7, they were taught at home by their mothers or male slaves. From age 7 – 14, they attended day school in the neighbourhood where they memorized Homeric poetry and learned to play that magnificent instrument, the lyre. They learned drama, public speaking, reading, writing, mathematics and perhaps even how to play the flute. They attended higher school for 4 years and learned more mathematics, science and government. At 18 they attended military school for 2 additional years. At the end of which they become proud Athenians whose schools were famed for literature, poetry, drama, theatre, schools, buildings, government and intellectual superiority. This clearly marked Athens out as the shining star of the Greek City State. (http://members.aol.com/Donnclass/Greeklife.html).

Just as education was used by these two ancient cultures to produce two different types of graduates, education can be used through skill acquisition in relevant skills abundant in the petroleum and gas industry in addition to the general social

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education to transform the restive youth of the Niger Delta. The skills taught to the participants of this study are all relevant to the oil and gas industry, within their environment. These youth have the mindset of working in the oil industry because of the high salary wages paid to workers but most of them lack the qualifications and the skills to perform such jobs Azaiki (2003) and Oghuvbu (2007). The resultant effect is frustration, anger and provocation to violence at the least opportunity. Since their ambition has been to work in the oil companies, the necessary motivation for them to excel is present.

Moreover, according to Ajumogobia (2009), the Niger Delta is capable of self sustaining. There is the abundance of water and wood which could be harnessed to create jobs for the teeming youth of the region. Efforts should be channeled towards marine based industries such as commercial fisheries, recreational fisheries, seabed mining, marine based tourism, ship/boat building, bio-technology, marine waste disposal, marine transport and ports to keep the youth in sustainable ventures. Earnings from these industries have the potentials to outstrip earnings from oil and gas.

All that is required is to lay a solid foundation for education in form of skill acquisition for youth who are out of school and the provision of educational infrastructure and well trained teaching and non-teaching staff who can teach skills and social education that are relevant to their environment and themselves. It is hoped that the negative mindsets of these youth can to be changed to achieve a peaceful Niger Delta.

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2.8   Conclusion

This chapter reviewed relevant literature aimed at establishing an in-depth knowledge of both the immediate and remote factors responsible for youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. It also aimed at investigating how education can be used to find a solution to the social menace of violence manifested by the youth.

From the underlying theories x-rayed, empirical studies and reviewed literature, the causes of youth restiveness include faulty socialization, bad societal values and environment, poverty, unemployment, underdevelopment of the region despite the huge sums of revenue derived from there, low quality of education without infrastructures and the perceived marginalization and oppression by the Federal Government. But the most fundamental of all the causes listed above is the legislations enacted by the Federal Government which has brought about 'the twin problems of both underdevelopment and associated poverty confronting the region'. However, it is pertinent to note that a legal solution to the Niger Delta crisis is not within the scope of this study.

It is evident that there are multi-causal factors responsible for the social menace of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. Therefore, there are many solutions to the problem. However, this research has focused on the role education can play in the solution of the problem, amidst other steps which are not within the confines of this study. But youth restiveness and its consequent violence portend danger for the region, the nation and indeed the world at large because of the crude oil found in the region. Hence a general social education using social advocacy and persuasion

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combined with skills acquisition can help these youth to become rational and well adjusted individuals who can shun violence. They can, therefore contribute meaningfully to the development of the nation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 This chapter discusses the following: the research design, study area, population, sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation, validation of instruments, procedure for data collection, treatment procedure and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted two research designs. These are the descriptive-survey and the quasi-experimental designs.

i) The descriptive-survey design is suitable for this research because the study identified, systematically described and analyzed the factors responsible for youth restiveness and investigated how skills acquisition and a general social education can help the youth to resist the social problems of youth restiveness or violence.

ii) The quasi-experimental design employed in this study is the pretest – posttest control group design, comprising of three groups (two treatment groups and one control group). One treatment group was exposed to skills acquisition only while the other received both skills acquisition and a general social education. The third group (control group) received neither skills acquisition nor a general social education. The study adopted the quasi-experimental pretest – posttest control design to explore the effects of treatment in this

case and the relationship that exist among the youth who were out of school without skills acquisition training, those who were already undergoing skill acquisition training and those who were undergoing skills acquisition training and a general social education. The quasi-experimental design was also chosen because it provides some degree of control for possible extraneous variables that pose as threat to both internal and external validity of the experiment. The design is diagrammatically represented below:

O_1 X_1 O_2

O_3 X_2 O_4

O_5 C O_6
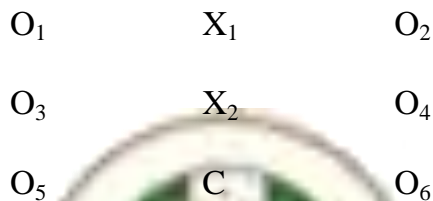
Where:

X_1 represents treatment I – Skills acquisition only

X_2 represents treatment II – Skills acquisition and the general social

        education

C   represents the control group.

        O_1, O_3 and O_5 represent pre-test scores

        O_2, O_4 and O_6 represent post-test scores.

Study Variables

Dependent Variable – Attitudes towards Violence.

Independent Variables are:

- Education
- Socio-economic background

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- Gender

- Self-efficacy

- General success expectancy

- Religious views

3.2   Study Area

This study was carried out in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. In this study, the four states of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers constituted the Niger Delta for the following reasons. They are the four highest oil producing States of the Federation. They are purely littoral or coastal states with their south bordering the Atlantic Ocean. (Nwanna-Nzewunwa, 2007).

3.3   Population

The target population is young persons who are between the ages of 18 and 30 years and who have left one level of education or the other and are not attending schools. These include youth who have completed their education and left school and those who dropped out of school in the four states of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers.

3.4   Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample for this study was made up of 1339 youth from four States of the region. The sample was made up of participants who were not in a skills acquisition center and those who were in a skills acquisition center in Sapele, Delta State.

To respond to the survey instruments, the participants who were not in the skills acquisition centre were selected through a multi-stage stratified sampling procedure.

First, a sampling frame of the senatorial districts within the four States was made. Secondly, from each of the senatorial district a cluster of 10 units of enumeration area was selected. Thirdly, a further 10 units from each cluster was systematically drawn making a total of 100 participants selected from each senatorial district. Since there are three senatorial districts in each State irrespective of size and location, 300 participants were drawn from each of the four States making a total of the 1200 participants but 1189 participants correctly responded to the questionnaire. These 1189 respondents, who were not in any skills acquisition centre and 150 respondents who were in the skills acquisition centre made up the sample size of 1339 participants.

The 150 participants in the skills acquisition centre in Sapele, Delta State were randomly selected from the Center's 317 students through the balloting method and they formed the experimental and control groups as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Sample to Treatment Groups.

Experimental condition	N
Skills Acquisition only	50
Skills-Acquisition-and-General-Social Education	50
Control	50
Total	150

From Table 2, it is evident that the 150 participants in the experimental group were divided into three groups of 50 each. One group was made up of participants who received only skills acquisition. The second group received both skills acquisition

and the general social education. The third group is the control group which did not receive both skills acquisition and the general social education.

3.5   Instrumentation

The following five instruments were used to obtain relevant data for the study:

1.   Personal Data Questionnaire (PDQ)

2.   Self-Efficacy Scale (SES)

3.   General Expectancy for Success (GESS)

4.   Scale of Attitude towards Violence (SAV)

5.   Religious Affiliation Scale (RAS)

Personal Data Questionnaire (PDQ)

This is a 40 item questionnaire developed by the researcher. The PDQ elicited background information about the participants. The background information sought include their ages, gender, educational qualification and those of their parents, number of siblings as well as other socio-economic indicators. Its face and content validity was scrutinized, and approved by the supervisors and a statistics expert in the Department of Educational Foundations.

Self - Efficacy Scale (SES)

This standardized instrument is developed by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandanta, Dunn, Jacobs and Roger (1982). It is a 30 item inventory to measure individual's levels of beliefs in his competence in a given task. It measures general expectations of self-

efficacy not tied to specific situations or behaviours. The underlying assumption of this scale is that personal expectation of the mastery of a given or envisaged task is a major determinant of behavioural change. This scale is adopted by the researcher to measure the self efficacy beliefs of youth in the study and their attitudes towards violence. The instrument is a 4 point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Agree (A), to Strongly Agree (SA).

The **SES** has a good internal consistency (alpha) of .86 for the general subscale and .71 for the social subscale (Sherer, 1982 et al). The **SES** correlates significantly with a number of measures such as the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). The instrument is culture fair and had been used for Nigerian samples by many researchers. It has been found to have high test retest reliability co-efficient in these studies. Among the Nigerian samples, Ahime (2007) in a study on 'The management of psycho-social problems of street beggars in a destitute centre in Lagos' obtained a test retest reliability co-efficient of 0.80 using a mixed sample of 50 respondents at four weeks interval. Aremu (2009), working on 'The effect of two counselling modes on the social competence of adolescents in some selected secondary schools in Lagos metropolis', got a test retest reliability co-efficient of 0.79 using a mixed sample of 30 respondents.

Administration of SES - The respondents were required to tick _/ in the space that best describe them in each statement. Each statement has a Likert scale and assigned scores as shown below:

Strongly Disagree (SD   =   1   Agree (A)   =   3

Disagree (D)   =   2   Strongly Agree (SA)   =   4

Sample items in SES are as follows:

		SD	D	A	SA
1.	When I make plans, I am certain, I can make them work. (Positive)	1	2	3	4
2.	I avoid facing difficulties. (Negative)	4	3	2	1

Scoring

The **SES** consists of fourteen negative, nine positive and seven filler items.

i.   Items 11, 15, 16, 22, 23, 28, and 30 are fillers and are not scored.

ii.   Items 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 13, 14, 17, 18, 24, 25, 27 and 29 are negative and reverse scored. For negative items, SD, D, A and SA are scored 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively.

iii.   The positively worded items are 1, 3, 7, 9, 12, 19, 20, 21 and 26. For positive items SD, D, A and SA are scored 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

iv.   Scores on the positive and negative items are added together to obtain an overall score.

v.   All positive SA scores are 4x30 = 120; all positive A scores are 3x30 = 90; all positive D scores are 2x30 =60 and all positive SD scores are1x30=30. The average is 300 divided by 4 =75.

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vi.   Therefore, scores above 75 are considered high on self efficacy and the scores below 75 are considered low on self efficacy.

General Expectancy for Success (GESS)

This instrument is a standardized 30 item inventory designed by Fibel and Hale (1978) to assess the generalized expectancy of being successful. The underlying concept of **GESS** is related to anxiety and negative cognition in relation to locus of control of success. Azaiki (2003) identified anxiety and hopelessness as one of the reasons for youth restiveness in the Niger Delta hence this instrument was adopted by the researcher. It is a 4 point Likert scale ranging from Not Very Sure (A), A Little Sure (B), Sure (C) to Very Sure (D).

The validity of this instrument has been tested primarily with concurrent validity procedures. Scores correlate significantly with depression and hopelessness (Fibel & Hale, 1978). It has a good internal co-efficient consistency of .90 for females and .91 for males and a test retest reliability of .83 for both genders. A test retest reliability co-efficient alpha of 0.70 with a norm score of 51.10 was obtained in a pilot study using 20 mixed respondents in an interval of 3 weeks in Lagos metropolis (Longe, 2008) and thus providing psychometric properties for Nigerian samples.

Administration of GESS – The respondents were required to indicate truthfully, the degree to which they believe each statement would apply to their good-selves as follows:

A   =   Not very sure   C   =   Sure

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| B | = | A little sure | D | = | Very sure |

Sample items in GESS are:

In the future I expect that I would:	A	B	C	D
1. Be a good parent. (Positive)	1	2	3	4
2. Be unable to accomplish my goals. (Negative)	4	3	2	1

Scoring

The **GESS** is made up of sixteen positive items and fourteen negative items.

    i.   The positive items are sixteen (1, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 25-27, 29 and 30).

    ii.   For positive items A, B, C and D are scored 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

    iii.   Items reflecting failure (2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21-24 and 28) are reverse-scored.

    iv.   Scores are the sum of the item ratings and range from 30-150.

    v.   Subtract 30 from 150 to get 120. Divide 120 by 2 to get 60.

    vi.   Scores above 60 are considered to reflect an internal control for success.

Scale of Attitudes towards Violence (SAV)

This scale is a synthesis of the scales of attitudes towards Guns and Violence and attitudes towards Conflict Resolution designed by Shapiro (1996) and that of Lams (1998) respectively as standardized instruments. The scale of Attitudes towards Guns and Violence measures attractions to guns and violence in relation to four factors. These are aggressive response to shame, hopelessness and insult factor, comfort with aggression factor, power and safety factor and excitement factor. And the scale of attitudes towards Conflicts Resolution measures attitudes towards the

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use of violence in response to disagreements or conflicts. These variables are palpably present in the Niger Delta crisis thus **SAV** was adopted by the researcher. It is a three point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (A), agree (B) to disagree (C).

The Scale of Attitudes towards Guns and Violence has internal consistency of 0.88 while the Scale of Attitudes towards Conflict Resolution has internal consistency of 0.77. Although no psychometric properties of this instrument on Nigerian samples is known to this researcher, its test retest coefficient of .78 was very high and was statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level in this study. However, for cultural fairness an item in the questionnaire was reworded for clarity after the pilot study as a result of the participants' inability to understand the usage of such a word. For example, the sentence 'I have got to fight to show people that I am not a <u>wimp</u>' in the original questionnaire was changed to 'I have got to fight to show people that I am not a <u>fool or weakling</u>.'

Administration of SAV – The following instructions were given to the respondents: Kindly indicate whether you agree, disagree or are not sure about the following ideas. These ideas are rated as follows:

A = Strongly agree   C = Disagree

B = Agree

Sample items of SAV are as follows:

		A	B	C
1.	I have got to fight to show people I am not a fool or weakling. (Negative idea)	5	3	1

2.	I wish there were no guns in my neighbourhood. (Positive idea)	1	3	5

Scoring-

The **SAV** consists of nineteen negative and eleven positive items.

    i.   Items represented in negative idea (1-7, 9-11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 20, 23, 24, and 28) are reverse-scored.

    ii.   Items presented in positive idea (8, 10, 12, 15, 18, 19, 21, 22, 25, 26 and 27) are scored: A = 5;   B = 3   and   C = 1.

    iii.   The scores for all items are summed up thus: All A scores are 5x30 = 150; all B scores are 3x30 = 90; all C scores are 1x30=30 giving a grand total of 270.

    iv.   The average is 270 divided by 3, which is equal to 90.

    v.   Therefore, for this study, scores above 90 show higher tendency of attraction towards violence.

Religious Affiliation Scale (RAS)

RAS is a Standardized 21 item inventory designed by Omoluabi (1995) to assess the extent to which individual participant engages in religious activities and holds strong religious views and believe in prescribed religious practices.

Reliability - Omoluabi (1995) reported a test retest reliability co-efficient of 0.97 in an interval of three weeks.   Erinoso cited by Omoluabi (1995) correlated **RAS** with

Life Satisfaction Index-z by Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin (1961) and obtained a divergent validity co-efficient of 0.26.

Administration of RAS – The respondents were required to indicate the extent to which they believe each statement by shading 'T' if the statement is TRUE or 'F' if the statement is FALSE.

Sample items of RAS are as follows:

1. I believe in a Supreme God/Allah   T   F

2. I am a born again Christian/Muslim   T   F

Scoring

i. Count the number of items shaded 'True' and multiply the number by three.

ii. Count the number of items shaded 'False' and ascribe 1 mark each.

iii. Participants' scores range from 3-63.

iv. The norms or mean scores are the basis for interpreting the scores of the participants.

v. Scores higher than the norms indicate high religious affiliation.

vi. In this study, the scores were 26.70 for males and 35.04 for females. Respondents who obtained scores higher than these norms were categorized as holding strong religious views while those who obtained scores lower than the norms were categorized as holding weak religious views.

3.6   Reliability and Validity of the Instruments

A preliminary study was carried out to determine the validity and reliability of the research instruments. For this purpose, 50 students from the Idia Renaissance skills acquisition center, Benin-City Edo State, not involved in the main study were used. This was to ensure that participants were from a neutral environment. All instruments were administered twice with a time interval of four weeks and were inter-correlated to determine their reliability, convergent and divergent validity. The results are summarized in the inter-correlated matrix shown in Table 2.

Table 3: Mean, Standard Deviation and inter-correlation matrix between the research instruments (N=50)

	Mean	Std.	SES1	GESS1	SAV1	RAS1	SES2	GESS2	SAV2	RAS2
SES1	58.10	8.76	1.00							
GESS1	58.98	9.41	.892*	1.00						
SAV1	62.26	9.04	-646*	-.974*	1.00					
RAS1	32.40	8.03	.552*	.722*	-.798*	1.00				
SES2	56.58	8.16	.913*	.887*	-.595*	.486*	1.00			
GESS2	58.96	6.93	.863*	.825*	-.500*	.438*	.896*	1.00		
SAV2	62.34	7.32	-682*	-.833*	-.781*	-.614*	-.781*	-.637*	1.00	
RAS2	33.62	8.80	.533*	.719*	-.782*	.870*	.480*	.459*	-.574*	1.00

*. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**

<u>**KEY**</u>
SES = Self-Efficacy Scale
GESS = General Expectancy for Success Scale
SAV = Scale of Attitudes towards Violence
RAS = Religious affiliation Scale

Table 3 shows that all four standardized measures have very high test-retest coefficient ranging from .91 for SES, .83 for GESS, .78 for SAV and .87 for RAS respectively. These test retest coefficients were statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level, thus revealing the stability of the instruments overtime. To determine the divergent validity of the instruments, each of SES, RAS and GESS were correlated with SAV and all the obtained coefficients were in the expected direction (negative) and statistically significant; that is -.65 between SAV and SES,-.80 between SAV and RAS and -.79 for SAV and GESS. The inter-correlations between SES, GESS, SAV and RAS were quite high and significant, ranging from.0.53 to 0.91, thus indicating the convergent validity of the measures.

3.7   Procedure for Data Collection

Permission

An introductory letter was obtained from the Department of Educational Foundations, University of Lagos. With this letter and an application to the Executive Director, Center for the Niger Delta Development, Abuja permission was sought and obtained for the use of the Center and students for this research.

Recruitment of Research Assistants

Sixteen research assistants who could speak English, 'pidgin' English and at least one or two of the major local languages of the four states were employed and trained on the modality of administering the questionnaire for effective data collection.   The research assistants were made up of ten 200 and 300 levels undergraduates of Nigerian universities from Faculties of Social Sciences who were

on end of 2006/2007 session holidays and six unemployed graduates who studied Arts subjects. The training sessions took place in Warri and there were two sessions of two hours each. The sixteen of them as a group administered the questionnaire state by state.

Administration of Instruments

The instruments were administered to and retrieved from the participants who did not receive the skills acquisition training with the help of sixteen research assistants. For the experimental group of 150 participants in the skills acquisition centre, a pre-test of the instruments was carried out on the first day of resumption of classes before a batch was asked to go home for three months due to inadequate facilities. The control group was drawn from this batch that was asked to go home. After the pre-test and the control group had gone home, the remaining participants were divided into two groups through simple random sampling technique by balloting. Each group was made up of 50 participants. They were informed that each group would receive different instructions initially but were assured that each group would be given the same lectures at the end of the sessions. They were also assured that there would be no examinations at the end of the sessions and so were encouraged to remain in their various groups. This was to discourage contamination of the procedure. Both groups spent eight weeks of interaction with the researcher and had a session of an hour per week.

Treatment Procedure/Package

There were two treatments, namely the skills acquisition as a remedy to youth unrest on the one hand and skill acquisition with a general social education on the other hand. One treatment group received skills acquisition only and the second group received both skills acquisition and a general social education.

Treatment Group 1 – Skills Acquisition only

The skills acquisition training of this study was executed by the Center for Niger Delta Development in conjunction with the Federal Ministry of Industry and Industrial Training Fund. The Center had earmarked 41 skills to be taught as shown in Appendix D (p. 240) but the facilities at the Technical College, venue of the training were inadequate so the youth were trained in any of the five skills offered at the Center. These were Welding, Catering and Tailoring, Electronics/Electrical services, Book keeping and Information Technology Services and Metal Fabrication. Since the two experimental groups were in the same Center, Treatment Group I was exposed to films and discussions on the game of Football to keep them in their group and to avoid contamination.

Session I

This session was used to establish cordiality and rapport. Some of them were asked about their State of origin, others were asked about their home towns and if they had visited Delta State before. They were once more reminded to remain in their group as there will not be any examination at the end of the sessions and what is taught in one group will be taught to the other group. We then started our discussion

on the game of football. The researcher asked them to mention when the game of football started in the world. There was no correct answer to the question. The investigator gave a brief history of how the game of football started over 140 years ago in England in 1863. She described what the game entails, the number of players and officiating personnel and how it is started. There was question and answer session. The class was very lively and everybody participated very actively.

Session II

The researcher revised the last lectures with them and asked them questions. She then gave a lecture on the various uses of the football game, the world cup tournament and the characteristics of a good footballer. A recorded film of a football match between Nigeria and Argentina in the 1994 in the United States was viewed by the participants. At the end of the lecture and film viewing, they were given a test. They were asked to list six uses of the game and discuss the characteristics of a good footballer.

Session III

This was an interactive session, starting with questions on the biggest soccer tournament on earth and who the organizers were. They were asked to mention the meaning of FIFA. They were asked to name some international footballers they know and the clubs they play for.

Session IV

This session focused on the Nigerian football scene. A lecture was given on prowess of the Nigerian football teams in international competitions. The Super Eagles' team has made it to the World cup three times-1994, 1998 and 2002 and won the African Cup of Nations in 1980 and1994. Nigeria won the gold medal in the 1996 summer Olympics and the U-17 World Cup for the third time in 1985 (China '85), 1993 (Japan '93) and 2007 (Korea '07). Nigeria is the first African nation to have performed such a feat and the second Brazil in the world. There was a test at the end of the lectures.

Session V

This was an interactive session. The participants were asked to name some of the finest world players that emerged from the Nation's junior team to Japan '93. The main topic of this session centered on female football and the reasons why they are not as popular as their male counterparts. There were questions and answers at the end and the researcher was impressed at their level of understanding. Therefore, there was no test.

Session VI

This session focused on the English Premier League and the European Football Association. These were compared and contrasted with the Nigerian Premier League. Some film clips of previous matches played by the three football associations were viewed. There was a test at the end of this session.
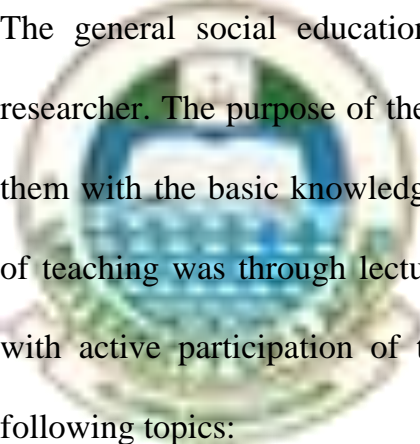
Session VII

This session was interactive. The researcher reviewed the different topics discussed earlier. Questions were asked by the participants that were either answered by other participants or the researcher. It was an interesting session and there was very active participation of the youth.

Session VIII

A post test was given to them.

Treatment Group 2 – General Social Education

The general social education was developed and taught to the youth by the researcher. The purpose of the general social education given to them was to equip them with the basic knowledge of their environment and themselves. The medium of teaching was through lectures with visual aids, questions and answers sessions with active participation of the youth. The participants were taken through the following topics:

1) Youth's world View on Peace and War.

2) Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) Lectures.

3) Drug Abuse and Trafficking.

4) Population and Sex education.

5) Role Modelling (of young achievers from the region and the world) and Goal Setting.

6) Conflicts / Conflicts Resolution.

SESSION I

To build confidence and co-operation, the researcher led a discussion to find out the general world view of the participants, how much of state, national and world current affairs they knew, their fears and aspirations as well as their difficulties and what motivated them. After which, the main part of the lecture started. It was on War and Peace. They were exposed to recorded video clips on a projector on war in Lebanon which was on then, the Rwandan ethnic war and the burning down of Afiesiere Village by the Nigerian Police as a result of Youth/Police clash in Ughelli North Local Government Area of Delta State which happened three weeks before the lectures. In contrast, they watched video clips of serene, quiet city and village scenes. After this, there was question and answer session. The aim of this lecture was to enable them decide which of the two, peace or war is more desirable. The researcher was satisfied with their level of understanding at the end of the question and answer session and no test was given in order not to discourage them from attending lectures.

SESSION II

This session exposed the participants to the basic facts of HIV/AIDS. It includes their meanings, origin, how they can be contacted, what are their symptoms and how they can be averted and the distinction between the two. The aim of this session is to acquaint the participants on the inherent dangers around them and to equip them with the knowledge of how to experience a HIV/AIDS free life. Even for those who are HIV positive, there is hope to live a normal life and have HIV free children once they know how and where to get help. This is to assist the

participants in confidence building in themselves about their environment and social responsibilities. They were shown video clips of CNN's Christie Amampour's documentary on the 'Heroes of the HIV Horror' vividly depicting how HIV/AIDS have made grand mothers in Africa heroes. The documentary showed the grand mothers who needed help were managing to cope with their grandchildren who were orphans due to HIV/AIDS. At the end of this session, there was question and answer before a test on the topic.

SESSION III

The discussion focused on Drug Abuse and Trafficking. The participants were meant to differentiate between drugs prescribed by a medical doctor for the healing of a particular illness or ailment and hard drugs taken without prescription by a medical doctor that could be harmful and dangerous to their health. Also associated with hard drug is the legal implications which prescribe punishment for offenders. They were made to understand the evil of drug trafficking and to recognize the easy ploy of quick wealth used to entice youngsters into the deadly trade. If caught, the consequences can ruin their lives and those of their families for life. They were told the story of Ogedengbe, Owoh and Owolabi who were caught with drugs at the Murital Mohammed International Airport, Lagos during the Buhari and Idiagbon regime and were executed in a retrospect decree. There was question and answer session. The researcher was satisfied at the level of their understanding and there was no test.

SESSION IV

This session exposed the participants to the dangers inherent in population explosion and the urgent need for population control. They were also taught the various ways of family planning to avoid unwanted pregnancies and babies. The aim of this topic was to draw the attention of participants to the need for sexual responsibility. Unemployed persons cannot go on breeding children when they cannot adequately care for such children. The consequence is the increase of uneducated and poor people who will in turn increase the social problem of stealing, robbery, other vices and anti-social activities. A child from a large and poor family is not likely to break the circle of poverty. With modern medicine, infant mortality is reduced compared to what it used to be, so breeding many children is no more fashionable. There was question and answer session and a test. They were asked to list five family planning methods and name three consequences of over population.

SESSION V

This session discussed role modeling and goal setting. The participants were taught to be focused at all times on what goals they have set out for themselves to achieve. They were encouraged to emulate young people who have excelled in their chosen careers. This session also stressed the need for hard work and perseverance. Success is not easy to come by and there is no short cut to success. Success is also the product of hard work, perseverance and God's Providence.

They were shown video clips of both young and adults who have made it to the very top through hard work, dedication to duty, sincerity and perseverance. They include

the then 27 year old female writer, Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie whose novels 'Purple Hibiscus' and 'Half of a Yellow Sun' won her international award and 'genius fellowship of Mac Arthur Foundations, a cash prize of about thirty million Naira; Dr. Fidelis Oditah, a Queen's Counsel (QC) and Senior Advocate of Nigeria (SAN); Ali Baba, a comedian of national repute; Barrister Richard Mofe-Damijo, a successful actor; Tuface Idibia, a successful young musician; Mr. Tony Elumelu, Managing Director of UBA; Mr. Jim Ovia, Managing Director of Zenith Bank Plc among others. These men and lady are products of the Nigerian environment but have excelled through hard work and by remaining focused on their goal. In contrast to the positive achievements of the young men and woman mentioned above, there was an interactive session on the reasons why the young men who were found with drugs in the previous lecture were executed. There was question and answer session but no test as the researcher was satisfied with their level of understanding.
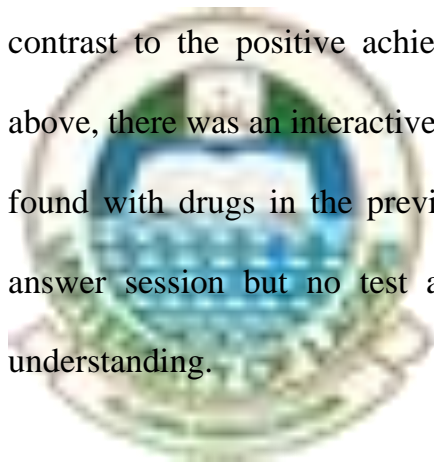
This treatment assumes that people learn by observing others (Bandura, 1977). People through interaction, observe and imitate the real-life behaviour of people around them. This accounts for how children imitate those around them and learn how to talk, walk, sing and do other things. The aim of this treatment was to encourage participants to observe real life models to imitate. They were also encouraged to set realistic goals for themselves and remain focused in order to attain success. An individual who has no vision of what to expect in life is likely to be aimless and unable to achieve much in comparison with the one who has a goal and works hard to achieve that goal.

SESSION VI

This session discussed Conflicts and Conflicts Resolution. The youth in this experimental group were made to understand that conflict is inevitable in human relationships. When they do occur amicable means of resolution should be emplored. They were made to realize that in conflict resolution, there they have to be flexible. There should be 'give and take' in order to arrive at an amicable resolution. The participants were persuaded to find out that dialogue was a better means of conflict resolution than any other means. Also they were led to know that sincerity was important in order not to betray and destroy any gains by the parties involved. At the end of this session, time was allowed for questions and answers on the topic. What is important is the knowledge that in human relationships, there are bound to be conflicts but that they should be resolved amicably. There was a drama sketch on how to resolve a land dispute between two communites. At the end of the drama, there was an interactive session on the steps that were properly taken and those not so properly done. There were criticisms and corrections.

SESSION VII

This session was interactive. The researcher reviewed the different topics discussed earlier. Questions were asked by the participants that were either answered by the participants or the researcher. At the end of the session, the researcher asked questions to elicit information as to how much they have benefited from the treatment.

SESSION VII1

A post test was given to the two treatment groups. Experiment group I was exposed to the treatment package at the end of the post test to enable the youth in this group to benefit from the programme.

Control Group

The participants for the control group were among the students sent home after registration because the facilities on ground could not cater for all the students admitted. Therefore, they did not take both skill acquisition and the general social education. They took the pretest before they left for home. On their return to school, the post test was administered. After the post test, they were exposed to the treatment package 2 for them to benefit from the programme.

3.8   Method of Data Analysis

The data collected from the various instruments were subjected to statistical treatment. Hypothesis 1 was tested with one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Hypothesis 2 was tested using multiple regressions. Hypothesis 3 was tested with one way ANOVA. Hypothesis 4 was tested using Inter-correlation Matrix. Hypothesis 5 was tested using t-test for independent samples. All the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Table 4: Socio-demographic Background Data of the Respondents

DATA	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL(N)	%
Educational Qualifications:						
I did not go to school	110	16.1	97	14.8	207	15.5
Primary/Secondary School	100	14.7	184	28.0	284	21.2
NCE/OND	249	36.5	151	23.0	400	29.9
HND/Graduate	104	15.2	97	14.8	201	15.0
Others	93	17.5	125	19.4	146	18.4
Martial Status						
Married	88	12.9	139	21.2	227	17.0
Not Married	594	87.1	518	78.8	1112	83.0
Family Situation						
Living with Parents	352	51.6	369	56.2	721	53.8
Living alone	191	28.0	150	22.8	341	25.5
Living with others	139	20.4	138	21.0	277	20.7
Parents						
Monogamy	434	63.6	486	71.4	920	68.7
Polygamy	248	36.4	171	26.0	419	31.3
I smoke	124	18.2	42	6.4	166	12.4
I drink alcohol	457	67.0	154	23.4	611	45.6
I am a Cultist	13	1.9	3	.5	16	1.2
I am not a Cultist	669	98.1	654	99.5	1323	98.8
I know about cultism, I have cult friends	79	11.6	48	7.3	127	9.5
Given a second chance I want to be a professional like Doctor, Lawyer, Engineer (etc)	582	85.3	546	83.1	1128	84.2
Job Interest						
I want to work in:						
Oil company	564	82.7	529	80.5	1093	81.6
Self/Private Employment	44	6.5	58	8.8	102	7.6
Teaching /Civil Service	74	10.9	70	10.7	144	10.8
I consider myself:						
Fortunate	63	9.2	58	8.8	121	9.0
More fortunate	33	4.8	38	5.8	71	5.3
Less fortunate	586	85.9	561	85.4	1147	85.7
I want my children to be:						
Fortunate	32	4.7	21	3.2	53	4.0
More fortunate	650	95.3	636	96.8	1286	96.0
Less fortunate	0	0	0	0	0	0

4.0   Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study in terms of answering the research questions posed and testing the hypotheses. Simple percentages, mean scores and standard deviations were used as descriptive statistics while t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and others were used as the inferential statistics for the data generated, using 0.05 level of significance.

4.1   Socio-demographic Background Data of the Respondents

Table 4 shows the socio-demographic characteristics and self-perceptions of the participants. The total respondents in this study were 1339, with 682 males representing 51% and 657 females representing 49%. The married respondents were 227 or 17% while 1112 or 83% are unmarried. Over 200 of the participants representing 15.5% did not go to school, 284 or 21.2% of them went to primary/secondary school, 400 or 29.1% have NCE OND and 201 of them or 15% were graduates. About half of the respondents or 53.8%, live with their parents while the other half live either alone or with others relations. Parents who were monogamous are 920 representing 68.7% while 419 or 31.3% are polygamous. Only 166 or 12.4% smoked while 67% male and 23% female drank alcohol. A negligible 16 or 1.2% were cultists while 1323 or 98.8% were not. Over 80.0% wanted to be professionals and to work in oil companies, only 144 or 10. 8% wanted to be self employed. Over 85.7% saw themselves as less fortunate in society and therefore wanted their children to be more fortunate in life.

4.2   Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: Hypothesis one states that there is no significant difference in the attitudes towards violence across the three experimental conditions.

To test this hypothesis, the two treatment groups and the control group were compared first on their pretest attitude towards violence scores to determine their homogeneity before the treatment. Secondly, the same comparison was performed using post-test attitude towards violence scores as the dependent variable while the experimental conditions were entered as the independent factor. This was to test treatment effect. The results of the analyses are summarized in tables 5, 6 and 7

Table 5: Descriptive Data of Pre and Post Test Attitude to Violence Scores of the Experimental Groups.

Experimental Groups	Pretest scores			Post test scores		Mean diff.
	N	Mean	Sd	Mean	Sd	
Skills Acquisition only	50	104.02	9.39	101.58	7.45	2.44
Skills-Acquisition-with Gen. social Education	50	106.36	8.78	88.28	5.88	18.08
Control	50	103.94	8.51	101.78	8.26	2.16
Total	150	104.77	8.91	97.21	9.60	7.98

The descriptive data presented in Table 5 indicate that the three groups were similar before the treatment, with respective mean scores ranging from 103.94 for the control group, 104.02 for the skill acquisition only group and 106.36 for the skill acquisition with general social education programme group. Table 5 also shows that at post-test, skills acquisition with general social education programme group recorded the greatest reduction in their attitude to violence scores with a mean of 88.28, followed by the skills acquisition only (101.58) and the control group with a mean of 101.78.

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To determine if those differences are statistically significant, the ANOVA results in Table 6 is displayed.

Table 6: ANOVA Test of Effects of Experimental Treatment on Youth Attitude to Violence

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F-cal	F-crit	Remark
Between groups	5986.33	2	2993.17	56.7*	3.99	Sig
Within groups	7756.84	147	52.77			
Total	13743.17	149				

* P<0.05

The one-way ANOVA showed F to be significant at 0.05 level, F-cal 56.72 is greater than F-critical (2/147) of 3.99 at P<0.05. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that treatment was effective in reducing the youth's attitudes towards violence. To determine where significant differences between groups lie, a Fisher protected t-test was performed.

Table 7: Fisher Protected t-test of Differences in Attitudes to Violence between the Experimental Groups

	Skills Acquisition only	Skills Acquisition & Social Education	Control
Skills Acquisition only	101.58[a]	0.85*	1.05 ns
Skills Acquisition with socio-education	13.30	88.28[a]	12.45*
Control	-0.2	13.50	101.78[a]

*P < 0.05

a = group means are in the diagonal; above the diagonal are the protected t-values while mean differences are shown below the diagonal.

Table 7 shows that two of the three comparisons made were statistically significant at 5% level. Youths who received skills acquisition with the general social education experienced the greatest reduction, followed by those who received skills acquisition only, while the control group did not experience any change in their attitude towards violence. Based on this evidence, hypothesis one was rejected. Therefore, violent attitudes of the respondents were significantly reduced by skills acquisition and social training.

Hypothesis Two: The second hypothesis states that there is no significant influence of gender, self efficiency, general success expectancy and the level of education of youth on their attitudes towards violence.

Table 8: Inter-correlation Matrix among the Predictor Variables and the Dependent Factor   (N =1339)

Variables	Mean	Std.	Att.to Violence	Gender	SE	Gen Suc Exp	Edu. Qual
Attitudes to Violence	91.17	13.02	1				
Gender	1.46	0.50	.28*	1			
Self Efficacy	59.71	12.91	-.68*	-.10	1		
Gen. Success Exp.	66.26	24.27	-.73*	-.20	-.93	1	
Educ. Qualification	3.01	1.32	-.05	-.15	.03	-.01	1

***Correlation is Significant at the 0.05 level**

Table 8 shows the inter-correlation matrix among the predictor variables and the dependent factor. Evidence from Table 8 indicates that the correlations between attitudes to violence (dependent variables) and each of the independent factors were 0.28 for gender, -0.68 for self efficacy, -0.73 for general success expectancy and -

0.05 for educational qualification. All these correlations except for educational qualification were statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

A further critical examination of Table 8 indicates that the correlations between attitudes to violence and each of self efficacy and general success expectancy were negative though statistically significant. This implies that youth with high levels of general success expectancy and self efficacy should be expected to be low in their attitudes to violence.

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis was employed to determine the joint and independent contribution of the predictor variables to the explained variance in the criterion variable. The results are shown in Tables 9 and 10.

Table 9: Model Summary of the Influence of Generalized Expectancy for Success, Gender, Self-Efficacy and Educational Qualification on Attitudes to Violence

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	R Square change
1	.73[a]	.53	.53	.53
2	.74[b]	.55	.54	.02
3	.74[c]	.55	.55	.00
4	.74[d]	.55	.55	.00

1   Predictors: (Constant) Generalized Expectancy for Success

1   Predictors: (Constant) Generalized Expectancy for Success and Gender

2   Predictors: (Constant) Generalized Expectancy for Success, Gender and Self Efficacy

3   Predictors: (Constant) Generalized Expectancy for Success Gender, Self Efficacy, Educational Qualification.

Table 9 shows that at step 1 when general expectancy for success was entered, the proportion of variance in attitudes to violence accounted for 53% and at step 2 with general expectancy for success and gender entered as predictors, the proportion variance increased to 54%. At step 4 with all four predictor variables entered, the proportion of variance in attitudes to violence increased slightly from 55% at the third step to 55%, thus yielding an R-Square change of .001.

Table 10: Variables included in Regression Equation

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
1	(Constant)	116.96	.71		164.10	*
	GESS	-.39-	.01	.72	-38.53	*
2.	(Constant)	110.66	1.10		100.74	*
	GESS	-375	.010	-.70	-37.10	*
	Gender	3.65	.492	.40	7.43	*
3.	(Constant)	113.62	1.62		70.01	*
	GESS	-.31	.03	-.58	-10.99	*
	Gender	3.95	.51	.15	7.82	*
	Self Efficacy	-129	052	-.12	-2.47	*
4.	(Constant)	114.67	1.71		67.26	*
	GESS	-318	.03	-.59	-11.18	*
	Gender	3.76	.51	.14	7.32	*
	Self Efficacy	-.11	.05	-.11	-2.17	*
	Edu Qualification	-.37	185	-.04	.1.99	*

*P < 0.05

1   Predictors: (Constant), Generalized Expectancy for Success

2   Predictors: (Constant), Generalized Expectancy for Success, Gender

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3	Predictors: (Constant), Generalized Expectancy for Success, Gender, Self-Efficacy

4	Predictors: (Constant), Generalized Expectancy for Success, Gender, Self Efficacy, Educational Qualification.

The results presented in Table 10 indicate that the greatest and most significant contribution to the prediction of youths attitudes to violence is generalized success expectancy (B = 59, t=11.18, P < 0.05), followed by gender (B= .14, t= 7.32 P< 0.05) self efficacy (B= -.11, t = 2.17, P < 0.05) and educational qualification (B= -.04, t= 1.99; P< 0.05) in that order.

Table 11: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Square	Df	Mean Square	F Cal	Sig
1	Regression	119380.38	1	119380.38	1484.47	*[a]
	Residual	107520.80	1337	80.42		
	Total	226901.18	1338			
2	Regression	123646.76	2	61823.38	799.93	*[b]
	Residual	103254.41	1336	77.27		
	Total	226901.18	1338			
3	Regression	124117.64	3	41372.55	537.37	*[c]
	Residual	102783.54	1335	76.99		
	Total	226901.18	133 8			
4	Regression	124422.49	4	31105.62	404.91	*[d]
	Residual	102478.69	1334	76.82		
	Total	226901.18	1338			

$*P < 0.05$

a.	Predictors: (Constant), Generalized Expectancy for Success

b.	Predictors: (Constant) , Generalized Expectancy for Success and Gender

c.	Predictors: (Constant), Generalized Expectancy for Success, Gender and Self Efficacy

d.   Predictors: (Constant), Generalized Expectancy for Success Gender, Self Efficacy and Educational Qualification

e.   Dependent Variable: Attitudes towards Violence.

Table 11 indicates that all the F-values computed at each of the steps were statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level. At the first step the F-value obtained was 1484.47. Given 1/1337 degrees of freedom at the 0.05 alpha level, the theoretical F-value was (3.84) which is statistically significant. At the last step with all four predictor variables, the F-calculated value was 404.91 which is greater than the F-critical value of (2.37) given 4/1334 degrees of freedom at the 0.05 probability level.

From the evidence presented in tables 8, 9, 10 and 11 the following conclusions were made in respect of hypothesis two:

1) Youths' generalized success expectancy, gender, self efficacy and educational qualification jointly accounted for about 54.8% of the proportion of variance in their attitudes towards violence.

2) The greatest and most significant predictor of the youths' attitudes to violence was their general success expectancy.

3) Of all the four predictor variables in our Regression Equation, the educational qualification of the youths made the least contribution to the explained variance in youth's attitudes to violence.

Hypothesis Three: Hypothesis three states that there is no significant effect of the socio-economic status of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

To test hypothesis three, the 1339 youths who participated in the study were first categorized into low, middle and high groups according to their socio-economic backgrounds. The indices used in classifying the participants are: parents' occupation, educational levels, residence, ownership of motor vehicles and luxuries at home. The attitudes to violence of the three groups were then compared using One-Way Analysis of Variance, the results of which are presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Descriptive Statistics of Effects of Socio-Economic Background (SEB) of the Youth and their Attitudes towards Violence.

SEB	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Low SEB	849	91.03	12.74
Middle SEB	298	95.22	11.20
High SEB	192	85.51	14.63
Total	1339	91.17	13.02

The table 12 shows that middle SEB recorded the highest mean scores of (95.22) followed by low SEB (91.3) and high SEB (85.51). To determine if these differences are statistically significant, the ANOVA result in Table 13 is displayed.

Table 13: ANOVA Test of Effects of Socio-Economic Background (SEB) of the Youth and their Attitudes towards Violence.

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F-cal	F-crit	Remark
Between groups	11058.49	2	5529.25	34.22	3.99	Sig
Within groups	215842.18	1336	52.77			
Total	226901.18	1338				

The one way-ANOVA showed a significant F value of 34.22 (2/1336) which is greater than F-critical of 3.99 at 0.05 level of significance. To determine where the significant between group differences lie, a Fisher Protected t-test was done in Table 14.

Table 14: Fisher Protected T-test of the Effect of Socio-Economic Background on Youths Attitudes to Violence

SEB	Low	Middle	High
Low	91.03 [a]	9.12*	9.56*
Middle	4.19	95.22 [a]	14.94*
High	5.52	971	85.51 [a]

* P< 0. 05

a = mean scores are in the diagonal; mean differences are below the diagonal while protected t-values are above the diagonal.

From the data presented in Table 14, it was evident that all three SEB groups compared on their attitudes towards violence were significantly different from each other. However, the results showed that the middle SEB youth in the Niger Delta reported the greatest attraction to violence followed by those in the low SEB group. Thus the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, we conclude that there is a significant effect of socio-economic background of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

Hypothesis Four: Hypothesis four states that there is no significant relationship between the general success expectancy of the youth, their self-efficacy and level of education.

Table 15: Descriptive Statistics and Inter-correlation Matrix of the Relationship between General Success Expectancy, Self-Efficacy and Educational Qualification

Variables	Mean	Sd	GSE	SE	EQ
Gen. Success Expectancy (GSE)	66.26	24.27	1.00		
Self Efficacy (SE)	59.71	12.91	.930*	1.00	
Educational Qualification (EQ)	3.01	1.32	.013	.025	1.00

Table 15 shows the mean scores, standard deviation and correlation among the three variables in hypothesis four. It was evident from the results in Table 15 that of the three correlations computed, only one was statistically significant at the 0.05 probability level. The correlations between educational qualification and each of generalized success expectancy (r = -.013) and self efficacy (r = 0.025) were very negligible and not statistically significant while that between generalized success expectancy and self efficacy (r = 0.93, P < .05) was highly positive and statistically significant.

Hypothesis Five: Hypothesis five states that there is no significant difference in attitudes towards violence between youths who hold strong religious views or Affiliations and those who do not.

To test this hypothesis the students were categorized into two groups - those who hold strong religious views and those who do not, based on their scores on the

religious affiliation scale. Those who scored above the norm score of 26.70 for male and 35.04 for female were categorized as holding strong religious views and those who obtained scores lower than the norm were categorized as holding weak religious views. These two categories of youth were then compared on their attitudes towards violence using t-test for independent samples and the results are reported in Table 16.

Table16: Attitudes towards Violence between Youths of Different Religious Views or Affiliations.

Group	N	Mean	Sd.	df	t-cal
Strong views	844	90.32	14.09	1337	3.13*
Weak views	495	92.61	10.83		
Total	1339	91.17	13.02		

*P< 0.05

The results presented in Table 16 indicate that of the 1339 respondents in this study, 844 of them hold very strong religious views as against 495 who do not. A t-test comparison of the two groups yielded a t-value of 3.13 as against a theoretical t-value of 1.96 given 1337 degrees of freedom at the 0.05 level of significance. The hypothesis that the youths attitudes towards violence will not significantly differ due to their religious affiliation lacked empirical support hence it was rejected.

An inspection of the group means shows that while those youths who hold strong religious views hold weak violent attitudes (mean = 90.32. sd =14.09), their counterparts with weak religious views were high on their attitudes towards violence (mean = 92.61, sd = 10.83) (t = 3.13 P < 0.05).
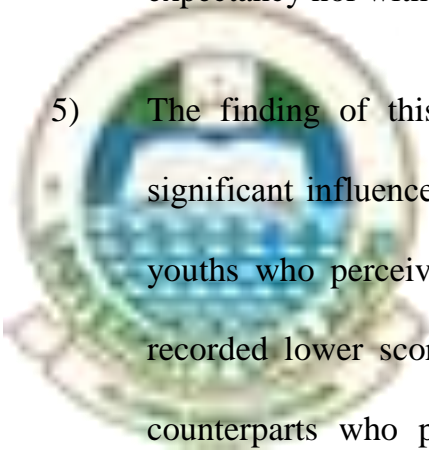
From the results, it was concluded that religious affiliation has a significant influence on youth's attitudes towards violence. Generally, youths who perceived themselves as holding strong religious views recorded lower scores in their attitudes towards violence than their counterparts who perceived themselves as holding weak religious views.

4.2 Summary of findings

This study was specifically conducted to determine the effects of education in youth restiveness in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. In the course of the study, the various factors responsible for the anti-social behaviour of these youth and underlying theories were investigated. The following were the highlights of the findings based on the research hypotheses formulated for the study:

1) This result showed that skills acquisition alone is not sufficient to militate against violent behaviours among the youth of the Niger Delta. Furthermore, skill acquisition combined with general social education was found to be most efficacious in reducing the attraction of the youth to violence.

2) The findings show that the joint contribution of these four predictor variables to the explained variance in youth's attitudes to violence was about 54.8%, thus leaving about 45.2% of the proportion of variance in attitude to violence unaccounted for. However, general success expectancy was the most significant independent contributor to the explained variance in youth attitudes to violence.

3)   Evidence from the study suggests that middle class youth harboured the most favourable attitudes towards violence than their counterparts from high and low socio-economic groups.

4)   The result of this study shows a high positive relationship between generalized expectancy for success and self efficacy thus suggesting that the youth who are high in their general success expectancy should be expected to also be high in their self efficacy. However, educational qualification neither significantly correlated with general success expectancy nor with self efficacy.

5)   The finding of this study suggests that religious affiliation has a significant influence in youth's attitudes towards violence. Generally, youths who perceived themselves as holding strong religious views recorded lower scores in their attitudes towards violence than their counterparts who perceived themselves as holding weak religious views.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, SUGGESTIONS

FOR FURTHER RESEARCH, SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.0   Introduction

The study investigated how a general social education and skills acquisition can influence youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. This chapter presents the discussion of the results of the statistical analysis reported in chapter four and offers possible explanations for the findings. The discussion of the findings either affirms or negates some research findings earlier reviewed. It offers general recommendations as to how the findings of the research can help to reduce youth restiveness and thus bring peace, quiet, harmony and development to the region. Some suggestions for further studies in the area of the Federal Government post Amnesty programme and the possible comparative studies of youth violence in other parts of the Federation are proffered. This chapter concludes with suggestions for further research and summary.

5.1   Discussion of findings

From the socio demographic data in Table 3, it is evident that 17% of the respondents are married while 83% are unmarried. There are more of the unmarried youth than the married ones. The huge gap between the married and unmarried youth in this study is a clear indication of the economic reality of these youth. Social commentators and researchers (Isichei, 2001; Azaiki, 2003; Alamieyeseigha, 2005; FME, 2006 and Bello cited in Babalola, 2007) agree that

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the youth of Nigeria and the Niger Delta in particular are unemployed and therefore poor. Considering the fact that in the time past, youth of this region married early (Ikime, 2004), confirms the fact that they are really poor hence many of them are still unmarried. Related to this is the fact that half of them live with and are dependent on their parents while the other half either live with other persons or live alone.

Only 15% of the youth in this study are graduates and 15.5% did not go to school. While the other 65.5% of the respondents are primary/secondary school leavers and NCE/OND holders, over 80% of them want to be professionals and to work in oil companies with only 10.8% wanting to be self employed. This is in consonance with the research finding of Ogionwo (1978), that the youth of the Niger Delta exhibit either extremely low self-perception or too high self-perception of themselves and as such cannot achieve high academic success and therefore drop out of school. The evidence here shows that they have exhibited extremely high self- perception, as overwhelming majority of them indicate interest to work in oil companies possibly as a result of high wages without the corresponding employable skills. Babalola (2007) observes that skills mismatch is of major concern in Nigeria where school graduates acquire skills not demanded by the labour market. Worst hit by the problem of skills mismatch are the areas of petroleum, gas, agriculture, manufacturing, solid minerals, tourism and Information Communication Technology (ICT) as identified in the Education Sector Status Report (FME, 2003). This is well corroborated by UNESCO (2003) which notes that Nigeria derives 95% of revenue from oil, but only 2% of its

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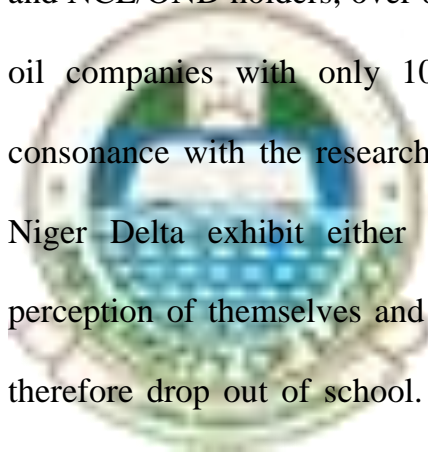
population works in the oil and gas industry. Added to this is the problem of skills linkages (Oghuvbu, 2007). According to Edem (2005), at present science and technology education and the technological industry are viewed as two isolated and unrelated fields. Science and technology education has not been linked to the world of work. There is the urgent need to recognize and tap into the existing relationship between education and the world of work in Nigeria. Not until the link is properly connected, the problem of finding jobs for the graduates of our educational system will be difficult. The youth can only hope for such oil and gas jobs but will be difficult for them to get because they lack the skills required for such jobs. This in turn, can breed restiveness.

It is also evident from Table 3 that the youth in this study would rather prefer to be employees other than being employers of labour. This is part of the unrealistic mindset of the youth of the region. This negative mindset has to be changed and this can be done through a social general education, advocacy and persuasion. Over 85% see themselves as less fortunate in society and therefore want their children to be more fortunate in life. Seeing themselves as less fortunate in life amounts to low self perceptions and this can negatively affect success in life. Although it could be argued that people who see themselves as less fortunate in life may work hard to upturn the less fortunate situation (Coopersmith, in Gross, 2005), contemporary models tend to recognize 'self' as an independent psychological structure that directs and controls behaviour (Pajeres, 1996b; Bandura, 1997, 2000). It can also not be ruled out that people with low self-perceptions may just be failures in life because low self-perceptions can lead to

low self-efficacy. They are also more likely to push their children into having too high expectations. If not properly handled, this could lead to frustration and failure due to inability to cope. However, the mere fact that most of the youth in this study would like to work in an oil industry is a good indication that if skills available in the oil industry are taught to them, their interest and motivation can be sustained for them to excel.
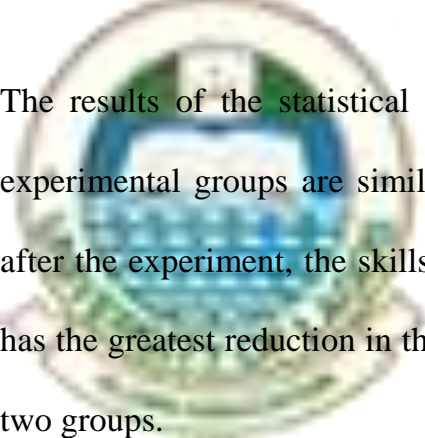
As much as 67% of the male drink alcohol and 23% of the female. The use of alcohol by many of the respondents is indicative of their possible use of other hard drugs since alcohol is a gateway to drugs taking. Hard drugs, according to Ifaturoti (1994) and Moronkola (2008) alter the users' mind and do predispose them to violence. This could account for the restive nature of most of the youth in the region. However, the use of alcohol is not new to the Niger Delta. The cold and wet environment of the region necessitated the local people to brew the local gin popularly referred to as 'apkatashi' to keep warm during the wet rainy and cold hamatan seasons. The white merchants who had contacts with the local traders, rulers and the people in the 6th and 8th centuries further encouraged the use of alcohol in the region by bringing bottles of gin and whiskey to the local people as gifts and merchandise. But what is new is that the use of alcohol by most of the youth of today is for criminal activities (Ifaturoti, 1994). This is a justification for the general social education.

Related to alcohol and other hard drugs is the issue of cultism. Although a negligible 1.2% of the respondents are cultists, the issue of cultism is not strange

to these youth. 'Egbesu' is a cult. The restiveness and militancy in Rivers State is all enmeshed in cultism. The Governor of the State has publicly vowed to destroy the cultism among the militants in his State Perhaps, the idea of cultism is different to these youth because everyone belongs to it. Therefore, most of them could not respond appropriately to the question as it makes no sense to them. Even the lie-detective questions did not help matters.

The next section discusses the findings in relation to the five hypotheses tested.

Hypothesis one states that there is no significant difference in the attitudes towards violence of the youth across the three experimental conditions.

The results of the statistical analyses of this hypothesis indicate that the three experimental groups are similar before the treatment. The results also show that after the experiment, the skills acquisition and the general social education group has the greatest reduction in their attitudes towards violence compared to the other two groups.

The results of the hypothesis testing agree with the views of Azaiki (2003) who recommends skills acquisition for the unemployed youth of the Niger Delta in order to stem youth restiveness in the region. Similarly, the Federal Ministry of Education (FME, 2006) in a study identifies skills acquisition as a remedy to the social problem of youth unemployment in Nigeria. Oghuvbu (2007) also recognizes skills acquisition as an important tool in the solution of unemployment among university graduates and that there is no linkage between courses taught in

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the universities and the world of work outside. Therefore, there are leakages resulting in unemployment and deviant behaviours among the Nigerian youth.

The above studies recommend skills acquisition alone as a panacea for youth unemployment and restiveness but the findings of this study reveal further that skills acquisition alone cannot reduce youth unemployment and restiveness.

The Federal, States and Local Governments and the oil companies have tried various measures to curb youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. These measures range from the introduction of OMPADEC and NDDC through skills acquisition programmes by oil companies to Amnesty and the Post Amnesty progammes. Yet, none of these interventions have been able to solve the social problems of youth restiveness and militancy. Many researchers advocate skills acquisition only as a remedy for the social malady. Literature, Asuni (2002) reveals that most of these youth have been dislocated and disorientated from the norms of a decent society. Some are used to the huge sums of money from their nefarious activities. Yet, others are so lazy, impatient and filled with passion for quick wealth. There are instances of youth selling the equipment given to them after skills acquisition training and squandering the money also given as starter-packs after such training. Equipping them with only skills, cannot adequately reintegrate them into the society. They will sooner or later find their way back to the creeks doing what they know how to do best, pirating and bunkering illegally, kidnapping among other anti-social activities. The general social education is required to change their negative mindsets and re-orientate them.

Hypothesis Two: The second hypothesis states that there is no significant influence of gender, self efficiency, general success expectancy and the level of education of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

The results show that gender, self-efficacy, general success expectancy are significantly correlated with attitudes towards violence. But educational qualification has a negative significant relationship to violence.

Researchers have established that self-efficacy beliefs and behavior changes and outcomes are highly correlated and that self-efficacy is an excellent predictor of behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986 and Pajares, 1996). This appears to confirm the findings of this study where high self-efficacy is able to reduce the youth's attraction towards violence. Pajares (2002) observes that youngsters' self-efficacy beliefs influence their academic performances in many ways. In Eduk and Akande (2008), out of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and academic self-regulation, self-efficacy is the most potent predictor of students' academic performance. In Aremu (2009), self-efficacy is also positively correlated to the social competence of the youngsters. Pajares and Miller (1994) discover that self-efficacy holds greater predictive power for a problem solving success than does background and gender. However, general success expectancy and gender are significantly related to self-efficacy, thus supporting Bandura's assertion of the meditational role of self-efficacy on performance.

Pajares and Miller's (1994) finding is supported by the finding of this study in the sense that self-efficacy holds greater predictive power for a problem solving success. General success expectancy and gender of the participants are both significantly related to self-efficacy, just as general expectancy for success and gender are significantly related to self-efficacy in this study. This is also confirmed in Ahimie's study (2007). The reason for the correlation between self-efficacy and the behavioural changes of the youth of the study could be in the self-belief of their capabilities. The strong self-belief in their capabilities to achieve success is probably the reason for their negative and anti-social behaviours. If this strong belief in 'self' is harnessed and well directed, the youth can be helped to contribute meaningfully to the society. This can better be achieved through a general social advocacy and persuasion.

Literature on youth restiveness in the Niger Delta has always presented the male restive youth as the only actors in the theater of violence and militancy in the region. The male restive youth are very visible and are paraded as gun trotters, kidnappers, pirates, rapists, illegal oil bunkerers, armed robbers and the like. The female youth from the region are not so branded as restive as their male counterparts. Historically female deviance has not been treated as men's deviance duly because men have always been seen as 'real offenders' (Banks cited in Aneke, 2009). According to Belknap (2001), both men and women commit the same kinds of offences but women in few cases. In support of this, Carlen (2002) and Chesney-Lind (2002) assert that women's crimes are few, physically less dangerous and less injurious. They contend that men are

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traditionally thought to be more aggressive than women and more likely to commit certain kinds of crime. Maccoby and Jacklin cited by Aremu (2009) concur that males are more aggressive than females.

Females are seen to commit few crimes which are physically less dangerous and less injurious because of their nature as mothers and home builders. Ozo-Eson (2004) lists women offences in Nigeria to include drug trafficking, murder, manslaughter, stealing/theft, assault/fighting, fraud, firearm possession, child abuse, abortion, smuggling, prostitution, streetwalking and armed robbery among others. She concludes that drug trafficking offences usually top the list. It accounts for 70% of all reported crimes. It is a way of making quick money.

It is significant to note that drug trafficking offences accounts for 70% of all female offences, yet this destructive trade and the role of female offenders are over looked and down-played in finding a solution to youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. Therefore, the inclusion of drugs and drugs trafficking in the general social education cannot be overemphasized.

Oloruntimehin (1981) observes that a few numbers of female offenders engage in violent crimes such as armed robbery, willful homicide and aggravated assault. This may be attributable to why in the history of youth unrest in the Niger Delta, the role of female youngsters has not been noticed and given attention. Another reason could be that the restive female youth play subservient roles. They perhaps work under the direction and supervision of the male restive youth who are their lovers, husbands or pimps. In most instances, their
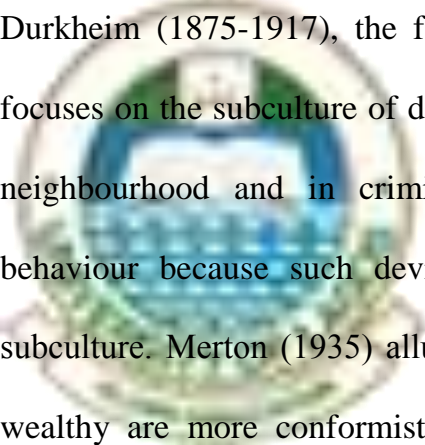
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jobs are to entice victims, to distract or look out for police, to carry the loot or to provide necessary cover. In confirmation of this fact, Aneke (2009) states that women are known not to 'mastermind' planning and execution of such crimes but are used as bait to entice men.

In the study, educational qualification has no strong bearing on attitudes towards violence. In other words, persons of high educational attainment are likely to have violent attitudes as those with low educational status. On this premise, it can be said that it is not the educational qualification of an individual that is responsible for violent attitudes but some other variables such as environmental influences, psychological and economic conditions. These environmental, socio-psychological and economic factors include, pollution of the land, seas and air by oil and gas exploration and exploitation, poverty, unemployment, drugs and lack of parental and moral guidance among others. A glance at the main actors of the violence in the Niger Delta appears to confirm this part of the finding of hypothesis two. Henry Okah of the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) is a university graduate, Asari Dokuboh of the Niger Delta Volunteer Force (NDVF) is the son of a retired Chief Judge and a university drop out, Government Etunkpolo, one of the leaders of the militants in Delta state is a secondary school dropout, most of the followers of these militia groups are not educated or at best half schooled to mention a few. It is obvious that educational qualification has no part to play in the anti-social behaviours of the youth in the Niger Delta. The causes of youth restiveness reside in some other variables such as environmental influences, psychological and economic conditions.

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Hypothesis three states that there is no significant effect of the socio-economic status of the youth on their attitudes towards violence.

This hypothesis seeks to find out the effect of socio-economic background (SEB) of the youth and their attitudes towards violence. The three SEB groups are significantly different from each other on their attitudes towards violence. However, the results show that the middle SEB group has the greatest attraction to violence followed by the low SEB group. This research finding negates the views of many scholars, theorists and researchers.

Durkheim (1875-1917), the founding father of sociology in his anomie theory focuses on the subculture of deviants. He opines that young people raised in poor neighbourhood and in criminal subculture are more vulnerable to deviant behaviour because such deviant actions are accepted as the norms in such subculture. Merton (1935) alludes to Durkheim's views when he asserts that the wealthy are more conformists to the rules and laws of the American society because they possess the legitimate means of attaining the desired societal goals. But poor people have barriers to legitimate career opportunities, so they experience frustrations and become deviants.

In series of studies carried out by Odekunle (1986) and Omisakin (1998), they identify poverty and unemployment as the major causes of crime in Nigeria. Faji (1999), in her study discovers that drug abuse is most prevalent among youngsters from low economic status group because the major source of supply is through street hawkers and mallams who live in their neighbourhood. Similarly, Oni

(2007) reveals that young persons from low economic background are most vulnerable to deviance.

However, the finding from this hypothesis although agrees with the other findings that socio-economic background as a variable, has a role to play in the discussion of deviance, violence or anti-social behaviours, this result negates the findings of the researchers and theorists highlighted above. In this study, youth from the middle socio-economic background are most attracted to violence and not youngsters from the low socio-economic background. The reason for this may not be far-fetched. Those in the middle socio-economic class are the elites in the society and may have given a measure of freedom to their children to express themselves and be listened to. It is most likely that youth from this social background are brought up to know their rights and to agitate when they perceive that those rights are violated. It is possible that the kind of environment in which they are brought has made them very sensitive to the perceived injustices being experienced by the region and its people. This has propelled them to take up arms and fight for their perceived rights. It may also be that because the youngsters in the middle social economic group are fairly comfortable in schools, they may have fallen prey to cultism and drugs. These could expose them to violent attitudes and join gangs when they leave schools.

Hypothesis four states that there is no significant relationship between the general success expectancy of the youth, their self-efficacy and level of education.

It is evident that generalized expectancy for success and self-efficacy are strongly correlated and they are almost one and the same thing. However, educational qualification is negatively correlated with both generalized expectancy for success and self-efficacy. This implies that generalized expectancy for success and self-efficacy are independent of educational qualification.

The first part of this finding supports by the results of Pajares (2002) and those of Pintrich and Schunk (1996). All studies point to a strong relationship between self-efficacy and general success expectancy and that self-efficacy, general expectancy for success and achievements are related. The authors reason that individuals who have low self-efficacy and do not expect success and plan to achieve that success cannot achieve success. Pajares (2002) concludes that such individuals will quickly give up tasks in the face of difficulties and such individuals might resort to anti-social behaviours.

Kelly (2002) asserts that the General Expectancy for Success Scale (GESS) measures three aspects of an individual's life. These are, his general self efficacy, long range career oriented expectancy and personal problem solving skills. This internal control for success is the degree to which an individual sees his success or failure attributed to his own efforts and not external factors. This implies that

young individuals with internal focus are more likely to be success-oriented than individuals who are externally focused.

Hypothesis five states that there is no significant difference in attitudes towards violence between youths who hold strong religious views or affiliations and those who do not.

The result from this hypothesis shows that the youth attitudes towards violence significantly differ due to their religious affiliations.

The finding from this hypothesis which is indicative of the positive contribution of religious affiliations in the reduction of violence among the youth confirms the findings of Rene, Duane, Allen, Baltzar and McCoy (2001) which highlight the protective effects of religion on drug use, HIV risk and violence among youth in the United States. The findings of their study indicate that religiosity is associated with less drug use, decreased engagement in HIV risk behaviours and less exposure to and engagement in violence. The finding of this hypothesis also agrees with the assertion of Balogun (1999). He asserts that lack of good moral education is responsible for the unacceptable nature of the youth's social life today. The finding is in consonance with the views of Atoyebi (1999) who counsels parents to be concerned with the spiritual up bringing of young persons to avoid stunted growth which will not be to their benefit and that of the society at large.

The findings of Oni (2007) prove supportive in this study. His study investigates socio-economic status as predictors of deviant behaviours. He concludes that youth from low socio-economic group have the highest number of deviants because of lack of moral up bringing and poverty.

The finding also supports Dafiewhare (2008) assertion that the proliferation of churches in the Niger Delta has resulted in dilution of religious and moral matters, as such young persons are confused about real values. This has caused most youth to devote their energy and vitality to anti-social behaviours that have negatively affected the development of the region.

5.2   Suggestions for Further Research

The findings of this study have revealed several noteworthy areas for further research. These could include the following:
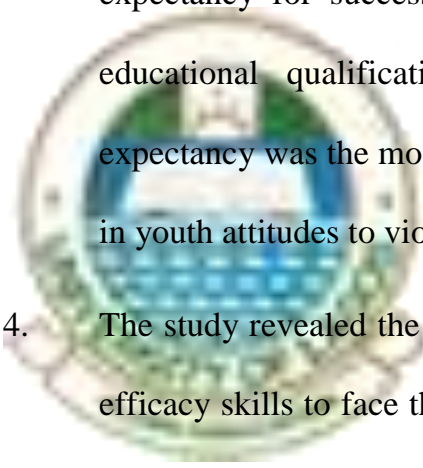
1. This research focused on youth who were out of school in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. This study could be replicated with youth who are in schools and youth from other parts of the Federation where violence, anti-social activities or restiveness is rampant among them.

2. This investigator recognized the dearth of literature on the variables of self-efficacy and generalized expectancy for success. Yet they are significant in the reduction of violence among the youth in this study. Further work is needed here to further confirm the importance of these variables in trying to find solutions to the menace of youth violence in the country.

3. Comparative studies can be carried out between the youth in the North known for religious violence and the youth of the Niger Delta.

4. This study exposed the importance of 'self' in the reduction of violence. Further studies could also be done using other variables of self like self-control, self-esteem, self-confidence, self-worth among others and attitudes of youth towards violence.

5. There is the definite need for further studies on the Post Amnesty situation in the Niger Delta since that aspect of study cannot be undertaken in this work.

5.3   Contributions to Knowledge

1.   The major contribution of this study to knowledge is the treatment package developed by the researcher to solve the social challenge of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. The model recommends skills acquisition and a general social education as a means of reducing youth unrest in the region. This is a novel contribution as previous authors, researchers and social commentators have always recommended skills acquisition alone as a remedy. The skills acquisition programmes by oil companies, State and Local Governments over the years and the intervention of the Federal Government through the establishment of OMPADEC, NDDC, Amnesty and now the Post Amnesty progammes have not been able to solve the social problems of youth restiveness and militancy. The new model is also cost effective as both trainings can take place simultaneously.

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2.   This research confirmed the need for social advocacy, persuasion and skills acquisition as a form of education in changing the mindsets of the youngsters in the region. Skills acquisition only as generally believed by authors and researchers (Azaiki, 2003; Oghuvbu, 2007 and Nwanna-Nzewunwa, 2007) can hardly be sufficient to reform a group of youth who have been so dislocated and disoriented from the social norms of a decent and healthy society.

3.   This thesis also contributed to knowledge by measuring and linking general expectancy for success to violent attitudes. Among other variables like educational qualifications, gender and self-efficacy, general success expectancy was the most significant independent contributor to the variance in youth attitudes to violence in this study.

4.   The study revealed the need to help young people to develop positive self-efficacy skills to face the world of work outside the school. Furthermore, it has highlighted the gap which exists between the school and real life experience outside the school and suggested a remedy.

5.   This thesis exposed the fact that the religious views held by young persons can contribute to restiveness among them. In addition, it has shed more light on the fact that strong moral education in schools and at home in the process of socializing them can help in solving the social menace of youth restiveness.

5.4 Recommendations

The recommendations for this research are based on the evidence from the findings of the study. The following recommendations are advanced:

(1) There should be serious job training and job creation opportunities within and   outside the oil industry to absorb the youth. These can be done in the following ways:

   a. The youth should be taught skills in welding, foundry among other skills required in the oil industry and be gainfully employed. In addition to the skills acquisition, there should be a general social education to be taught to them for effective reduction of tendencies towards violence as this study has shown.

   b. The potentials of the region should be properly harnessed for development. The Niger Delta region if properly harnessed is capable of sustaining itself. Considering competitive advantage and channeling efforts towards marine based industries such as commercial fisheries, recreational fisheries, seabed mining, marine based tourism, ship/boat building, bio-technology, marine waste disposal, marine transport and ports, earnings from these industries have the potentials to outstrip earnings from oil and gas. There would be massive employment of the youth.

   c. There is also the availability of wood in the mangrove forest of the region which could be harnessed for the employment benefit of the youth. With the establishment of modern trade centers, carpentry skills can be taught to the youth to manufacture furniture for export. There could also be modern

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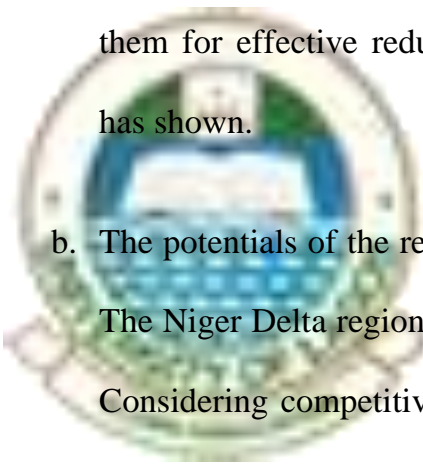
boat/ ship making from wood for water transportation. Modern houses found in developed countries made from wood could be taught and learnt by the youth of the Niger Delta to replace the many shanty houses found in most rural areas and creeks of the Niger Delta.

d. The youth can be trained as coastal guards and pipeline surveillance community groups. This is to ensure the safety of pipelines and facilities in the various areas of the region. If this is done properly, the people particularly the youth will fare better to feel that they have a stake in the oil drilled from their creeks. As stakeholders, the local people are best placed to provide local security to enable the Federal Government to reduce military presence in the region.

e. Former armed youth of the Niger Delta should be integrated into the security forces like the Police, Army, Navy, Air Force and the State Security Service since they have some knowledge of military warfare. They would be useful in policing the creeks with its difficult terrain.

(2) The youth of the region should be taught social coping skills through role modeling or mentoring, persuasion and social advocacy to enable them transit into well adjusted adults who can shun violence and deviance.

(3) There should be moral education reintroduced into all the schools in the Niger Delta to provide a holistic growth for the youth for their own benefits and that of the society at large.

(4)   Conflicts and conflicts resolution should be taught at all levels of the educational system in the region because the area is engrossed with conflicts of all sorts.

The literature review highlighted very fundamental issues which are at the heart of the problem of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. If peace is to be achieved in the region, the Federal Government should demonstrate a strong political will to do what it should do in the following areas:

a.   Take advantage of the on-going Constitutional reforms to abrogate the laws identified earlier on from the statute books of the nation so that the people of the Niger Delta do not perceive marginalized.

b.   There should be fairness, equity and justice in the distribution of the country's resources. In the 1960s and 1970s the national revenue formula was based on 50% derivation principle to the State that produces foreign exchange earning cash crops. If the 50% derivation formula is reverted to, it will go a long way in calming nerves and raising the hope of the people.

c.   It should tackle the problems of environmental pollution and degradation. It should enforce the gas flaring laws to compel the oil companies to stop the flare of gas that constitute health hazards to the people of the region. The oil companies should be made to face the task of social responsibility to their host communities.

d.   The rehabilitation and development of infrastructures of the region should be pursued more vigorously and with a greater sense of urgency. Roads and

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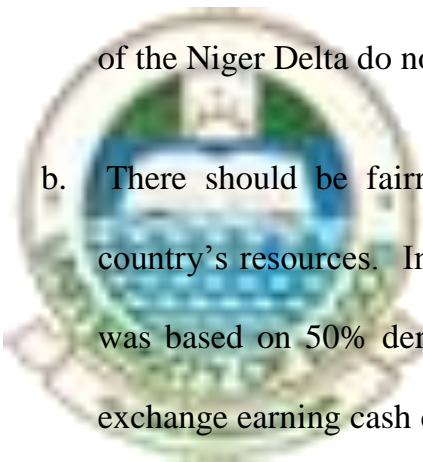
bridges must be constructed where need be and communities must have access to electricity supply and telecommunications facilities as to their fellow citizens in other parts of the country. This would help assuage tension in the region.

e. The people of the region should be given increased opportunity to participate in the oil and gas industry through crude oil and product lifting, oil blocks and marginal fields' allocation and contract jobs. Regrettably major contracts are never awarded to indigenous contractors but to outsiders to the envy of the indigenes and to the detriment of the generality of the youth. These actions have resulted in the restiveness of the youth.

f. There should be increased consultation by the government, oil companies, Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) and their intervention agencies and the communities to avoid wastages and encourage full participation of all stakeholders and transparency. Although the Yar'Adua led Federal Government has created the Federal Ministry of Niger Delta, much is desired to see its take-off, its abilities to restore confidence in the people and its ability to bring about the much desired peace in the region.
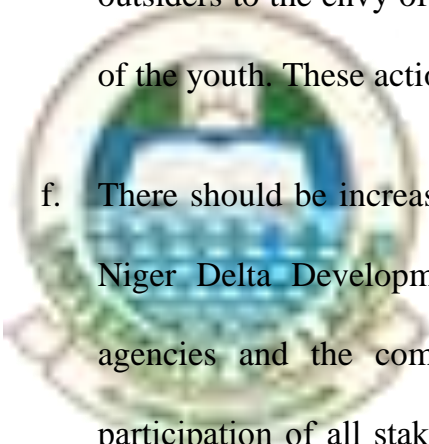
5.5   Summary and Conclusion

This study was carried out to determine the effect of education in the solution of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. A total of 1339 participants were assessed for the study, consisting of 1189 respondents who were not in any skills acquisition center and 150 participants who were in a skills acquisition center in Sapele, Delta state. The 150 participants constitute the two treatment groups.

The data for the study was generated using five instruments. Five research hypotheses were formulated and statistically analyzed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), multiple regression, inter-correlation matrix, independent t-test comparison and descriptive statistics. All the five hypotheses tested, at 0.05 level of significance were rejected.

The results of the study revealed that:

- A combination of skills acquisition and a general social education was most efficacious in reducing attraction towards violence.

- General expectancy for success wass the most predictor of attitudes towards violence.

- Both general expectancy for success and self-efficacy were significantly correlated while education was not correlated to both general expectancy for success and self-efficacy.

- Youth from the middle socio-economic background were most attracted to violence followed by those from low socio-economic background.

- The findings also revealed that religious affiliation was significantly correlated with the youth attitudes towards violence.

The conclusion drawn from the foregoing is that:

- Youth in the Niger Delta should be exposed to both skills acquisition and a general social education in efforts to get them gainfully employed.

- They should be taught life social coping skills that will strengthen their expectancy for success and confidence in themselves, to enable them grow up into adulthood as well adjusted members of the society.

- Their moral education should be emphasized by parents, the schools and society at large.

- They should be given opportunity to have an in-put into matters that affect them. In so doing, we are building bonds of friendship, giving them a sense of belonging and we can modify and shape the kind of successors that will take over from the present generation.

Finally, the basis of this study should be enhanced by more future studies by sociologists, environmentalists, educationists and other researchers interested in seeing an end to the menace of youth restiveness in Nigeria in general and the Niger Delta in particular.
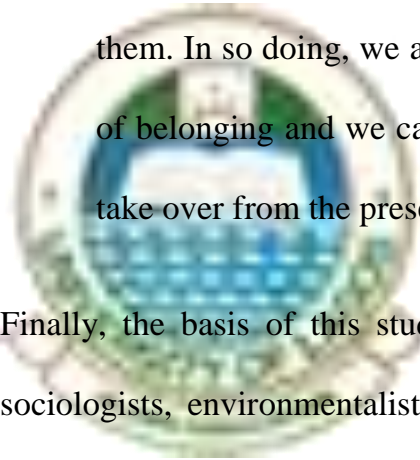
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ABBREVIATIONS

HIV   -   Human Immune Virus

AIDS   -   Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

MOSOP   -   Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People

MEND   -   Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta

IYC   -   Ijaw Youth Council

EBA   -   Egbesu Boys of Africa

IYNM   -   Isoko Youth National Movement

JTF   -   Joint Task Force

UNDP   -   United Nations Development Programmes

UNDCP   -   United Nations Drug Control Programmes

STDs   -   Sexually Transmitted Diseases

NPE   -   National Policy on Education

FGN   -   Federal Government of Nigeria

CJS   -   Criminal Justice System

NDE   -   National Directorate of Employment

NUT   -   National Union of Teachers

ASUU   -   Association of Senior Staff of Universities

NPST   -   National Policy on Science and Technology

PDQ   -   Personal Date Questionnaire

SES   -   Self-Efficacy Scale
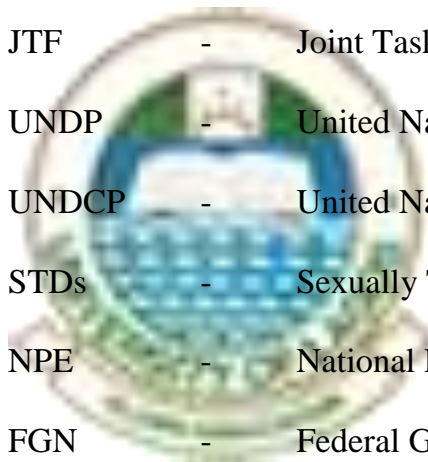
GESS   -   General Expectancy for Success

SAV	-	Scale of Attitudes towards Violence
RAS	-	Religious Affiliation Scale
FIFA	-	Federation of International Football Association
FME	-	Federal Ministry of Education
NCE	-	National Certificate of Education
OND	-	Ordinary National Diploma
ICT	-	Information Communication Technology
UNESCO	-	United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organization
SEB	-	Socio-economic Background
ANOVA	-	Analysis of Variance
NDDC	-	Niger Delta Development Commission
UNPF	-	United Nations Population Fund
AHI	-	Action Health Incorporated
HROs	-	Human Right Organizations
NDHS	-	Nigerian Demographic & Health Survey
NISER	-	Nigerian Institute Social Educational Research
NERDC	-	Nigerian Educational and Research Council
VVF	-	Virginal Vistula Fistula
OMPADEC	-	Oil Mineral Producing Area Development Commission
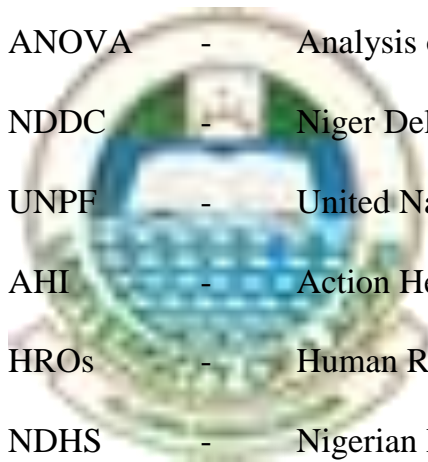
APPENDIX B

PERSONAL DATA QUESTIONNAIRE (PDQ)

You are kindly requested to give the following information about your good self. Please answer the questions sincerely. Your confidentiality is strictly protected hence your names are not required in answering these questions. Thank you for your honesty and co-operation.

Instructions: Fill in the blank spaces, tick ✓ in the spaces provided and circle where necessary.

1.   Age_____   2. Gender: Female [ ]   Male [ ]

3.   Educational Qualification:

   Did not go to school? [ ]   NCE/OND [ ]

   Primary school [ ]   HND/Graduate [ ]

   Secondary school [ ]   Any other (Specify)_____

4.   State of origin

   Akwa Ibom [ ]   Baylesa [ ]

   Delta [ ]   Rivers [ ]

5.   Ethnic group (Tribe)_____

6.   Marital Status: Married [ ]   Single [ ]   Divorced [ ]

7.   Religion:
   Moslem [ ]   African Traditional Religious [ ]

   Christianity [ ]   Other religions   --------------

8.   Family Situation:

   Parents living together [ ]   Separated Parents [ ]

   Divorced parents [ ]   father dead [ ]

   Mother dead [ ]   Both parent dead [ ]

9. Parents' Educational Qualifications

	Mother	Father
Did not go to school		
Primary school		
Secondary school		
NCE/OND		
HND/Graduate		

10.   Parents' Job: (Specify) Father _____

                                Mother_____

11. I grew up with: ☐   12. Present Situation: ☐

    Both parents ☐   I Live with mother's relation ☐

    Only father ☐   Live alone ☐

    Only mother ☐   Live with friends ☐

    Father's relative ☐   Live with neighbour ☐

    Mother's relative ☐   Live with both Parents ☐

    Neighbours ☐   Live with father's relation ☐

    Parents friend ☐   Live with father ☐

    Others (specify)_____   Live with mother ☐

13.   In what type of house do you live in?

        a flat ☐   a duplex ☐

        a room ☐   a room & parlor ☐

14.   How many of you live in your compound? 30 people and above ☐

       15-10 people ☐   6 and above ☐   4 and below ☐

15.   Who owns the house that you live in? (Tick)

        Landlord   Your father and mother

        Your father   Grand parents

        Your mother   Staff quarters

16.   What gadgets do you have in the house? (Tick as many as you have)

        Black & white Television   Coloured Television

        Video   Radio

        Compact disc   Laser disc

        Fan   Air conditioner

        Telephone (Land line)   Mobile phone

        Computer   Cable Satellite

17.   Do your parents have a car(s)? **Father:** Yes: No: /**Mother**: Yes: No

18.   If yes, how many cars? **Father**:---------   **Mother**:-------------

19.   What type of cars do they have? (List their names}

        Father:-----------------------------**Mother**:------------------------------

20. How many children do your parents have? --------------
21. What is your position among your father's children?
22. How many wives does/did your father have? (specify)-----------

23. I smoke cigarette   [ ]
    Indian Hemp   [ ]
    Cocaine   [ ]
    Heroine   [ ]
    Others (mention it)_____

24. How often do you smoke? 3 times a day [ ] Once a day [ ]

    Very occasionally [ ]   Very frequently [ ]

25. I do not smoke. [ ]

26. Do you drink alcohol?   Yes [ ] No [ ]

    If yes, how often do you drink? 3 times a week [ ] Once a day [ ]

    Above 3 times a week [ ] Once a week [ ]   Once in a while [ ]

27. Who provides you money for smoking or drinking? (specify) ---------

28. Do you know of any cult/gang?   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

29. If yes, mention it -------------------------------------

30. Do you know of any cult member?   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

31. Is it wrong to belong to one?   Yes [ ] No [ ]

32. Would you leave your friend because he belongs to a cult? Yes [ ] No [ ]

33. Do you belong to any cult?   Yes [ ] No [ ]

34. If yes, why did you join the cult? --

35. If no, will you want to join any in future?   Yes [ ] No [ ]

36. If you were to come to this world again, what do you want to

    become? Specify _____

37. Where do you want to work now? In the civil service, teaching

    service, oil company or private employment? Choose one.

38. Do you consider yourself more fortunate, fortunate or less fortunate?

39. Would you want your children to be more fortunate, fortunate or

    less fortunate?   Choose one

40. I am working   [ ] I am not working   [ ]

APPENDIX C

SELF-EFFICACY SCALE (SES)

Read each statement and decide to what extent it describes you. There are no right or wrong answers. Please be very truthful and describe yourself as you really are, not as you would like to be.

		Disagree Strongly	Disagree a little	Not sure	Agree Little	Agree Strongly
		A	B	C	D	E
1.	When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.					
2.	One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.					
3.	If I cannot do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.					
4.	It is difficult for me to make new friends.					
5.	When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them					
6.	I avoid facing difficulties					
7.	Failure just makes me try harder					
8.	I feel insecure about my ability to do things					
9.	I am a self-reliant person.					
10.	I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life.					
11.	There are some good things in everybody.					
12.	If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him or her to come to me.					
13.	When trying to do something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.					
14.	I give up on things easily.					
15.	I like mathematics					

| No.	Statement					
16.	I very much like to watch television					
17.	If I meet someone interesting who is hard to make friends with, I will soon stop trying to make friends with that person.					
18.	I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.					
19.	I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.					
20.	When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.					
21.	When I am trying to become friends with someone who is uninterested at first, I do not give up easily.					
22.	I like to do house chores					
23.	Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality					
24.	I give up on things before completing them					
25.	If something looks complicated, I will not even bother to try.					
26.	When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.					
27.	When unexpected problems occur, I do not handle them well					
28.	If I were an artist, I would like to draw children.					
29.	I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.					
30	I like gardening					

APPENDIX D

GENERAL EXPECTANCY FOR SUCCESS (GESS)

Introduction: Please indicate truthfully, the degree to which you believe each statement would apply to your good self, according to key on the right hand side of the statements.

		Not very sure	A Little sure	Not sure	Sure	Very Sure
	In the future I expect that I will:	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**
1.	Be a good parent					
2.	Be unable to accomplish my goals					
3.	Deal poorly with emergency situations.					
4.	Discover that the good in life outweighs the bad					
5.	Succeed in the projects I undertake					
6.	Find that no matter how hard I try things just do not turn out the way I would like.					
7.	Handle myself well in whatever situations I am in.					
8.	Not be very good at learning new skills.					
9.	Have problems working with others					
10.	Achieve recognition in my profession.					
11.	Be a good judge of what it takes to get ahead					
12.	Attain certain goals I have set for myself.					
13.	Have a stressful marriage					
14.	Be able to solve my own problems					
15.	Experience many failures in life					
16.	Get the promotion I deserve.					
17.	Find that people do not seem to understand what I am trying to say.					
18.	Succeed in most things I try.					
19.	Discover that my plans do not work out too well.					
20.	Be very successful working out my personal life.					

21.	Be discouraged about my ability to gain the respect of others.					
22.	Find my efforts to change situations I don't like are ineffective.					
23.	Not make any significant contributions to society.					
24.	Discover that my life is not getting much better.					
25.	Be listened to when I speak					
26.	Be successful in my endeavours in the long run					
27.	Make a good first impression on people I meet for the first time					
28.	Have difficulty dealing with my superiors					
29.	Carry through my responsibilities successfully					
30.	Handle unexpected problems successfully					

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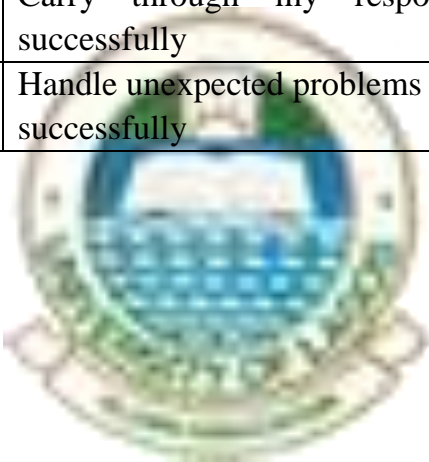
SCALE OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS VIOLENCE

Kindly indicate whether you agree, disagree or are not sure about the following ideas:

		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
		A	**B**	**C**
1.	I have got to fight to show people I am not a fool or weakling			
2.	If someone disrespects me, I have to fight them to get my pride.			
3.	Carrying guns make people feel safe.			
4.	Carrying guns make people feel powerful and strong			
5.	If people are nice to me, I will be nice to them but if they stop me from getting what I want, they will pay for it badly.			
6.	I would like to have a gun so that people would look up to me.			
7.	It would be exciting to hold a loaded gun in my hand.			
8.	I wish there were no guns in my neighbourhood.			
9.	I bet it would feel real cool to walk down a street with a gun in my pocket.			
10.	I would feel stupid inside if someone laughed at me and I do not fight back at him.			
11.	It would make me feel really powerful to hold a loaded gun in my hand.			
12.	The people I respect would never go around with guns because they are against hurting people.			
13.	I think it would be fun to play around with a real gun			
14.	If someone insults me or my family, it really bothers me, but if I beat such a person up, that makes me feel better.			

15.	I do not like people who have guns because they might kill someone.			
16.	Belonging to a gang makes people feel safe because they have got people to back them up.			
17.	If I acted the way teachers think 1 should be on the street, people would think I was weak and I would get pushed around.			
18.	I wish everyone would get rid of all their guns.			
19.	I do not like being around people with guns because, someone could end up getting hurt.			
20.	Young people in gangs feel like they are part of something powerful.			
21.	If I am mad at someone, I just ignore him/her			
22.	Even if other people would think I am stupid, I would try to stop a fight.			
23.	It is okay for me to hit someone to get him to do what I want.			
24.	Sometimes a person doesn't have any choice but to fight.			
25	When my friends fight I try to get them to stop.			
26.	There are better ways to solve problems other than fighting.			
27.	I like to discuss a problem instead of fighting.			
28	If people do something to make me really mad, they deserve to be beaten up.			
29.	My family would be really mad at me if I got into a fight with other people, no matter what the reason.			
30	If things are worrying or bothering me, I do things to relax like playing games or watching television.			

APPENDIX F
RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION SKILL (RAS)

Name

…………………………Sex………………………..Age……..Date…………

INSTRUCTION: The following are statements about religious activities. Please read each statement carefully and if it accurately applies to you shade "T" (TRUE) in front of the statement but if it does not apply to you shade "F" (FALSE). There are no right or wrong answers. Please work rapidly and ensure that you answer ALL the items.

1. I believe in a supreme God/Allah……………………………………… T F

2. I am a born-again Christian/Muslim ……………………….......... T F

3. I go to church/mosque always…………………………………… T F

4. I am a member of some Christian/Muslim societies……………… T F

5. I pay my levies/dues/tithes in the church/mosque regularly………… T F

6. I regularly attend Bible/koranic classes during the week apart   T F
    from Friday/Saturday/Sunday…………………………………

7. I take part in evangelical activities often to places outside the Town I live T F
    in……………………………………………………………

8. I regularly go out with other colleagues to preach from house to T F
    house……………………………………………………………

9. I regularly attend fellowship/prayer meetings……………………… T F

10. I listen regularly to Christian/Muslim programme on radio…………… T F

11. I regularly watch Christian/Muslim programme on television………. T F

12. I usually take part in fasting... T F

13. I regularly attend night services in my church/mosque.............. T F

14. I pray at least two times a day... T F

15. I read the bible/Koran at least once everyday.............................. T F

16. I regularly give alms to the poor………………………………… T F

17. I have a miracle handkerchief/lira………………………………… T F

18. I am a baptized/confirmed/consecrated member of my religion........ T F

19. I always dress in a manner prescribed by my religion.................... T F

20. I faithfully do what is expected of me during my religious T F
    festivals:..

21. I cannot marry a person who is not a member of my religious Denomination… T F

DEVELOPED BY P.F. OMOLUABI (1995)

APPENDIX G

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION FOUNDATIONS
(WITH EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGY)
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS, NIGERIA

Acting Head of Department
Dr. G. C. Ilogu
B.Sc (UNN), M.A, Ph.D. (SUNYAB, NEW YORK)

Tel.: 4932660 - 1
Ext. 1948

Date: 12th January, 2004

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

MRS T. UTUAMA with Matriculation Number **85903076** is a Ph.D (SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION) student in this Department and she is conducting a research on her Project.

It shall be greatly appreciated if you could give her all necessary assistance.

Thank you

DR. G. C. ILOGU
HEAD
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS
UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS,

Department of Educational Foundations
Faculty of Education
University of Lagos
Akoka
Lagos
31ˢᵗ March, 2006.

The Executive Secretary
Centre for Niger Delta Development
1336, Usman Dan Fodio Crescent
Abuja.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST

I read with excitement in the Vanguard Newspaper of Thursday, February 9th, 2006 of the proposed course being organized by the Centre for Niger Delta Development in conjunction with the Federal Ministry of Industry and the Industrial Training Fund for the youth of the Niger Delta and to commend the bold step taken by this initiative.

I am a Ph.D student of the above university and for the past two years been involved in research work into the role education, especially skill acquisition, can play in helping the Niger Delta restive youth to be more productive and adaptive to the environment that has undergone dramatic and drastic changes from oil exploration.

Encouraged by the proposed course, I request for permission to administer questionnaire on this target population and to lecture the students for eight weeks. I wish to make available to the Centre the data analyzed from this exercise and also to solicit assistance from the Center.

Please find attached an abridged copy of my research proposal, photocopies of a letter of introduction from my Head of department and a receipt for payment of fees for the current academic session for your necessary action, sir.

Whilst thanking you for your cooperation so far, I look forward to a positive reply.

Yours faithfully,

Utuama Tuwere (Mrs)

CENTRE FOR NIGER DELTA DEVELOPMENT IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE FEDERAL MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY (FMI) AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FUND (ITF) is organizing a "SKILLS ACQUISITION TRAINING PROGRAMME RELEVANT TO OIL & GAS INDUSTRY FOR YOUTHS OF THE NIGER DELTA"

The training will expose participants to acquire such basic skills as Welding, Carpentry, Storage Tanks & Pipeline Maintenance, Facility Management, and Entrepreneurship Development etc. The target groups include NIGER DELTA YOUTHS within the age bracket of 16 - 30 years, who must have a minimum of Junior Secondary School (JSS) education or its equivalent. The training involves 2 weeks Classroom lectures and 10 weeks practical exposure/attachment in the Oil & Gas Industry.

Niger Delta Youths who fall within the target group are requested to go to the Chairmen of their respective Local Governments and register for the participation in the forth-coming collaborative training programme between the CNDD and the FMT/ITF.

1. Electrical Installation & Maintenance	2. Electrical Appliance & Control Maintenance
3. Electronics Fault-Tracing & Repairs	4. Electric Motors & Control Mechanism Maintenance
5. Generating Set Maintenance	6. Electric Arc Welding
7. Metal Fabrication Techniques	8. Instrumentation (Gauges)
9. Compressor Maintenance	10. Pumps & Valves Maintenance
11. Oxy-Acetylene Cutting & Welding	12. Gas Injection Maintenance
13. Hydraulic & Pneumatic Systems Maintenance	14. Industrial Lubrication Maintenance
15. Air Conditioning &. Refrigeration Maintenance	16. Pipe Fitting
17. Fitting & Machining	18. Painting, Coating & Spraying
19. Tungsten Inert Gas (TIG) Welding	20. Maintenance of Turbines
21. Metal Spare Parts Reclamation Techniques	22. Auto Electrician
23. Auto Mechanics (Heavy Duty)	24 Blasting Skills
25. Corrosion Control	26. Pollution Control
27. Auto Driving (Heavy Duty)	28. Crane Operation Skills
29. Catering & Hospitality Skills	30 Tailoring Services
31. Safety, Health & Environmental Skills	32. Computer Operation & Info Technology Services
33. Laundry Services	34. Forklift Operation
35. Materials-Man (Store Keeping)	36. Solar & Alternative Energy
37. Oil Exploration & Prospecting	38. Reservoir & Subsea Technicians
39. Data Acquisition	40. Metal Integrity Testing Skills
41. Pumps & Valves (Fitters) Maintenance.	

1. The Permanent Secretary, Federal Ministry of Industry, Old Federal Secretariat, Garki – Abuja. Tel: 09-2341625	2. The Director General, Industrial Training Fund, Miango Road, Jos. Tel: 073-464997	3. The Executive Secretary, Centre for Niger Delta Dev. (CNDD), 1336, Usman Dan Fodio Crescent, Abuja. Tel: 08051729997

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APPENDIX H

PICTORIAL REPRESENTATION OF THE NIGER DELTA SITUATION

The kidnap of oil workers by restive youths

Environmental pollution and degradation from oil spills and gas flaring

Gun trotting and restive youths

Bombs and warheads surrendered by the militants during the Amnesty programme

Ammunitions and Guns surrendered by the militants in Bayelsa State during the Amnesty programme of the Federal Government